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REVIEWS

The Despatches of Field Marshal the Duke of Wellington; compiled from Official and Authentic Documents. By Lieut.-Colonel Gurwood. 12 vols. Murray.

For obvious reasons, it has not been thought advisable to insert in this collection the despatches of the years 1816, 1817, and 1818, the period of the occupation of France by the allied army; the work therefore is now complete. It is not possible, in our opinion, to overrate its historical importance, including as it does the despatches and official correspondence of the illustrious Duke while serving in India, Denmark, Portugal, Spain, the Low Countries, and France, during the most eventful period of modern history; but it is not in our power to do justice to the subjects which it embraces. A large and philosophical review of a work like this, would necessarily involve questions of vast national interest, for the consideration of which we are not prepared;—there is no such mass of accumulated and authentic evidence before us as is sufficient for the purpose—a party view, indeed, might be taken of hand, but not an historical one—and, after all, we are not far enough removed from the excitement of the times and events. But we cannot but observe that, so far as the Duke himself is concerned, this simple record of facts is the noblest testimony that could be offered to his moral and intellectual character. His military fame needed no such blazonry—he stands pre-eminent among the greatest commanders of an age distinguished for its military genius. The history of the war is indeed but the record of his fame; from the Douro to the Garonne he marched right onwards, and Vimiero, Talavera, Salamanca, Vittoria, mark the progress of his triumphs; he liberated Portugal, drove the enemy before him through Spain, and entered France itself as a conqueror. Once again summoned hastily to the field, Waterloo became the crowning glory of his life. But all this is known and registered in the hearts of Englishmen;—the deep interest of the work before us arises from the insight we gain into the character of the man. If we cannot do justice to the one, we may at least contribute something to a due understanding of the other; and as the last and most interesting volume is only just published, and cannot have reached our readers, we shall make a few selections from its pages.

The following letter was written on the morning of the battle of Waterloo. The retreat of the Prussians from Sombref had rendered necessary a corresponding movement on the part of the Duke, who retired from Quatre Bras upon Waterloo. This, no doubt, occasioned great anxiety among the English at Brussels:—

“Waterloo, 18th June, 1815. 3 A.M.

“My dear Stuart,—I enclose two letters, which I beg you to peruse and forward without loss of time. You will see in the letter to the Duc de Berri the real state of our case and the only risk we run. The Prussians will be ready again in the morning for anything. Pray keep the English quiet if you can. Let them all prepare to move, but neither be in a hurry or a fright, as all will yet turn out well. I have given the directions to the Governor of Antwerp to meet the *crotchets* which I find in the heads of the King's Governors upon every turn. Believe me, &c.

WELLINGTON.

“The post horses are embargoed in my name; I conclude, to prevent people from running away with

them; but give the man orders to allow anybody to have them who goes with an order from you.”

Notwithstanding the Duke's confidence in the result, the following directions, written at the same hour, were forwarded to the Governor of Antwerp:—

“Je reçois votre lettre du ; et je vous prévient que vous devez considérer Anvers comme en état de siège, et que vous devez former les inondations tout de suite. Pour ce qui regarde les provisions des habitants, ce n'est pas nécessaire à présent d'y faire grande attention. Je vous prie d'observer que, malgré que la place soit en état de siège, vous y laissez entrer le Roi de France et sa suite, s'il se présente; et que vous ferez cantonner sa garde, si elle y vient, auprès de la place. Vous laisserez aussi entrer et sortir librement toutes les familles, ou Anglaises ou d'autre nation, qui se présenteront, ayant été dans le cas de quitter Bruxelles pour le moment.”

The following letters, written the day after the battle, will be read with great interest:—

“To the Earl of Aberdeen, K.T.

“Bruxelles, 19th June, 1815.

“My dear Lord,—You will readily give credit to the existence of the extreme grief with which I announce to you the death of your gallant brother, in consequence of a wound received in our great battle of yesterday. He had served me most zealously and usefully for many years, and on many trying occasions; but he had never rendered himself more useful, and had never distinguished himself more, than in our late actions. He received the wound which occasioned his death when rallying one of the Brunswick battalions which was shaking a little; and he lived long enough to be informed by myself of the glorious result of our actions, to which he had so much contributed by his active and zealous assistance. I cannot express to you the regret and sorrow with which I look round me, and contemplate the loss which I have sustained, particularly in your brother. The glory resulting from such actions, so dearly bought, is no consolation to me, and I cannot suggest it as any to you and his friends; but I hope that it may be expected that this last one has been so decisive, as that no doubt remains that our exertions and our individual losses will be rewarded by the early attainment of our just object. It is then that the glory of the actions in which our friends and relations have fallen will be some consolation for their loss. Believe me, &c.

WELLINGTON.

“Your brother had a black horse given to him, I believe, by Lord Ashburnham, which I will keep till I hear from you what you wish should be done with it.”

“To the Duke of Beaufort, G.T.

“Bruxelles, 19th June, 1815.

“My dear Lord,—I am very sorry to have to acquaint you that your brother FitzRoy is very severely wounded, and has lost his right arm. I have just seen him, and he is perfectly free from fever, and as well as anybody could be under such circumstances. You are aware how useful he has always been to me; and how much I shall feel the want of his assistance, and what a regard and affection I feel for him; and you will readily believe how much concerned I am for his misfortune. Indeed, the losses I have sustained, have quite broken me down; and I have no feeling for the advantages we have acquired. I hope, however, that your brother will soon be able to join me again; and that he will long live to be as he is likely to become, an honour to his country, as he is a satisfaction to his family and friends. Believe me, &c.

WELLINGTON.

Shortly after, the Duke had occasion to complain of the conduct of the Dutch troops in pillaging the villages situated on their line of march; having named two officers engaged in these transactions, he thus concludes:—

“Je vous ordonne, M. le Général, de mettre ces

deux officiers aux arrêts, et de les envoyer à la Haye auprès de Sa Majesté, auquel j'envoie copie de cette lettre. Je ne veux pas commander de tels officiers.

“Je suis assez longtemps soldat pour savoir que les pillards, et ceux qui les encouragent, ne valent rien devant l'ennemi; et je n'en veux pas. J'ai l'honneur d'être, &c.

“WELLINGTON.”

In a letter to Marshal Beresford he thus describes the battle of Waterloo:—

“You will have heard of our battle of the 18th. Never did I see such a pounding match. Both were what the boxers call gluttons. Napoleon did not manoeuvre at all. He just moved forward in the old style, in columns, and was driven off in the old style. The only difference was, that he mixed cavalry with his infantry, and supported both with an enormous quantity of artillery. I had the infantry for some time in squares, and we had the French cavalry walking about us as if they had been our own. I never saw the British infantry behave so well.”

The influence of the battle was soon manifest, and on the 28th of June he wrote to Sir Charles Stuart:—

“General — has been here this day to negotiate for Napoleon's passing to America, to which proposition I have answered that I have no authority. The Prussians think the Jacobins wish to give him over to me, believing that I will save his life. — wishes to kill him; but I have told him that I shall remonstrate, and shall insist upon his being disposed of by common accord. I have likewise said that, as a private friend, I advised him to have nothing to do with so foul a transaction; that he and I had acted too distinguished parts in these transactions to become executioners; and that I was determined that if the Sovereigns wished to put him to death they should appoint an executioner, which should not be me.”

The progress of events was rapid, and on the 7th of July we find the Duke in Paris, and on the 8th he protested, in a letter to General Baron Müling, against levying contributions on the city; and on the same day wrote to Blücher respecting the contemplated destruction of the bridge of Jena:—

“Paris, 8th July, 1815. Midnight.

“Mein lieber Fürst.—Several reports have been brought to me during the evening and night, and some from the Government, in consequence of the work carrying on by your Highness on one of the bridges over the Seine, which it is supposed to be your intention to destroy. As this measure will certainly create a good deal of disturbance in the town, and as the Sovereigns, when they were here before, left all these bridges, &c., standing, I take the liberty of suggesting to you to delay the destruction of the bridge at least till they shall arrive; or, at all events, till I can have the pleasure of seeing you to-morrow morning. Believe me, &c.

“WELLINGTON.”

Blücher, however, was not to be restrained by words of courtesy, and a more formal remonstrance followed:—

“Paris, 9th July, 1815.

“Mein lieber Fürst.—The subjects on which Lord Castlereagh and I conversed with your Highness and General Comte Gneisenau this morning, viz., the destruction of the bridge of Jena and the levy of the contribution of one hundred millions of francs upon the city of Paris, appear to me to be so important to the Allies in general, that I cannot allow myself to omit to draw your Highness's attention to them again in this shape. The destruction of the bridge of Jena is highly disagreeable to the King and to the people, and may occasion disturbance in the city. It is not merely a military measure, but is one likely to attach to the character of our operations, and is of political importance. It is adopted solely because the bridge is considered a monument of the

battle of Jena, notwithstanding that the Government are willing to change the name of the bridge. Considering the bridge as a monument, I beg leave to observe that its immediate destruction is inconsistent with the promise made to the Commissioners on the part of the French army, during the negotiation of the convention, viz., that the monuments, museums, &c. should be reserved for the decision of the Allied Sovereigns. All that I ask is, that the execution of the orders given for the destruction of the bridge may be suspended till the Sovereigns shall arrive here, when, if it should be agreed by common accord that the bridge ought to be destroyed, I shall have no objection. * * Since I have had the happiness of acting in concert with your Highness and the brave army under your command, all matters have been carried on by common accord, and with a degree of harmony unparalleled in similar circumstances, much to the public advantage. What I now ask is, not the dereliction of your measures, but the delay of them for the day, or at most two days, which will elapse before the Sovereigns will arrive, which cannot be deemed unreasonable, and will, I hope, be granted on account of the motive for making the request. Believe me, &c. WELLINGTON."

The consequences foreseen soon followed, as may be inferred from the letter addressed to Lord Castlereagh:—

"Paris, 14th July, 1815. 2 P.M.
"My dear Lord,—I enclose a letter which I have just received from the Préfet de Police, informing me of two English officers having been shot at last night. I have not heard of this circumstance from any other quarter; but I have sent to inquire about it. It is my duty, however, to apprise your Lordship, in order that you may make such suggestions as you may think proper to the Ministers of the Allied Courts, that it is my decided opinion that we shall immediately set the whole country against us, and shall excite a national war, if the useless, and if it was not likely to be attended with such serious consequences, I shall call it ridiculous, oppression practised upon the French people, is not put a stop to; if the troops of the several armies are not prevented from plundering the country, and the useless destruction of houses and property; and if the requisitions and all the contributions levied from the country are not regulated by some authority besides the will of each individual General commanding an army. I assure your Lordship that all the information I receive tends to prove that we are getting into a very critical state; and you may depend upon it that, if one shot is fired in Paris, the whole country will rise in arms against us. I hope that some measures will be adopted without delay which shall put an end to this state of affairs. Believe me, &c. WELLINGTON."

His exertions to protect the French nation from needless exactions and wanton insult is manifest throughout this correspondence—his regrets at his inability are often expressed—here is an extract from a letter to his brother:

"You will have heard of our great battle in Flanders, and of its final result in the surrender of Buonaparte to the *Bellerophon*, off the Isle d'Aix; and if the Allies will only be a little moderate, that is, if they will prevent plunder by their troops, and take only what is necessary for their own security, we may hope for permanent peace. But I confess that I am a little afraid of them. They are all behaving exceedingly ill."

Again, in a letter to Earl Bathurst he observes:—

"As we keep our troops here for nothing, and it is impossible to say what may happen under the system of plunder which it is proposed to adopt, it is best that you should send us as many as you can."

The following is from another to Lord Beresford:—

"The battle of Waterloo was certainly the hardest fought that has been for many years, I believe, and has placed in the power of the Allies the most important results. We are throwing them away, however, by the infamous conduct of some of us; and I am sorry to add that our own Government also are taking up a little to much the tone of their rascally newspapers. They are shifting their objects; and,

having got their cake, they want both to eat it and keep it."

The same considerate good feeling is manifest in his conduct towards individuals:—

"To Lieut.-Gen. Sir George Nugent, G.C.B.
"Paris, 14th Nov. 1815."

"My dear Sir George,—I have received your letter of the 7th regarding ———, together with one from him, and his memorial to the Horse Guards, regarding his conduct in the battle of Waterloo, upon which subject I can do nothing without orders from the Horse Guards, as ——— has applied in that quarter. In general I am very averse to bringing forward instances of misconduct, after such a battle as that of Waterloo. Many a brave man, and I believe even some very great men, have been found a little terrified by such a battle as that, and have behaved afterwards remarkably well. If, therefore, the case had come before me in the first instance, or if I had heard of it at all, I should have taken measures to put a stop to it: as it is, I must act as I shall be ordered. From what I have heard of the case since I received your letter, it appears that, ——— having left the field as wounded; the surgeon of the regiment could not return him in the list of wounded. It will turn, first, upon whether the surgeon was right or wrong; and, secondly, whether he was not so stunned as to be obliged to quit the field, although not in such a state afterwards as that the surgeon ought to have returned him as wounded. I shall be most happy to see you again. Believe me, &c. WELLINGTON."

His general views on the policy that ought to be observed towards conquered France are set forth in a letter to Lord Castlereagh:—

"Paris, 11th August, 1815.
"My dear Lord,—I have perused with attention the memorandum which you have sent me, and have considered well the contents of those written by the Ministers of the other powers.—My opinion is, that the French Revolution and the treaty of Paris have left France in too great strength for the rest of Europe, weakened as all the powers of Europe have been by the wars in which they have been engaged with France, by the destruction of all the fortresses and strongholds in the Low Countries and Germany, principally by the French, and by the ruin of the finances of all the Continental Powers.—Notwithstanding that this opinion is as strongly, if not more strongly, impressed upon my mind than upon that of any of those whose papers have lately come under my consideration, I doubt its being in our power now to make such an alteration in the relations of France with other powers as will be of material benefit.—First; I conceive that our declarations, and our treaties, and the accession, although irregular in form, which we allowed Louis XVIII. to make to that of the 25th of March, must prevent us from making any very material inroad upon the state of possession of the treaty of Paris. I do not concur in ——— reasoning, either that the guarantee in the treaty of the 25th March was intended to apply only to ourselves, or that the conduct of the French people since the 20th of March ought to deprive them of the benefit of that guarantee. The French people submitted to Buonaparte; but it would be ridiculous to suppose that the Allies would have been in possession of Paris in a fortnight after one battle fought if the French people in general had not been favourably disposed to the cause which the Allies were supposed to favour.—In the north of France they certainly were so disposed, and there is no doubt they were so in the south, and indeed throughout France, excepting in Champagne, Alsace, parts of Burgundy, Lorraine, and Dauphiné. The assistance which the King and his party in France gave to the cause was undoubtedly of a passive description; but the result of the operations of the Allies has been very different from what it would have been if the disposition of the inhabitants of the country had led them to oppose the Allies.—In my opinion, therefore, the Allies have no just right to make any material inroad on the treaty of Paris, although that treaty leaves France too strong in relation to other powers; but I think I can show that the real interests of the Allies should lead them to adopt the measures which justice in this instance requires from them.—There is such an appearance of moderation in all that has been written upon this subject, that we might hope there would

be no material difference of opinion on the disposal of what should be taken from France, supposing that it should be decided that France is to make a cession; and therefore I do no more than advert to that objection to the demand.—But my objection to the demand of a great cession from France upon this occasion is, that it will defeat the object which the Allies have held out to themselves in the present and the preceding wars.—That which has been their object has been to put an end to the French Revolution, to obtain peace for themselves and their people, to have the power of reducing their overgrown military establishments, and the leisure to attend to the internal concerns of their several nations, and to improve the situation of their people. The Allies took up arms against Buonaparte because it was certain that the world could not be at peace as long as he should possess, or should be in a situation to attain supreme power in France; and care must be taken, in making the arrangements consequent upon our success, that we do not leave the world in the same unfortunate situation respecting France that it would have been in if Buonaparte had continued in possession of his power.—It is impossible to surmise what would be the line of conduct of the King and his Government upon the demand of any considerable cession from France upon this present occasion. It is certain, however, that, whether the cession should be agreed to or not by the King, the situation of the Allies would be very embarrassing.—If the King were to refuse to agree to the cession, and were to throw himself upon his people, there can be no doubt that those divisions would cease which have hitherto occasioned the weakness of France. The Allies might take the fortresses and provinces which might suit them, but there would be no genuine peace for the world, no nation could disarm, no Sovereign could turn his attention from the affairs of his country.—If the King were to agree to make the cession, which, from all that one hears, is an event by no means probable, the Allies must be satisfied, and must retire; but I would appeal to the experience of the transactions of last year for a statement of the situation in which we should find ourselves.—Last year, after France had been reduced to her limits of 1792 by the cession of the Low Countries, the left bank of the Rhine, Italy, &c., the Allies were obliged to maintain each in the field half of the war establishment stipulated in the treaty of Chaumont, in order to guard their conquest, and what had been ceded to them; and there is nobody acquainted with what passed in France during that period who does not know that the general topic of conversation was the recovery of the left bank of the Rhine as the frontier of France, and that the unpopularity of the Government in the army was to be attributed to their supposed disinclination to war to recover those possessions.—There is no statesman who, with these facts before his eyes, with the knowledge that the justice of the demand of a great cession from France under existing circumstances is at least doubtful, and that the cession would be made against the inclination of the Sovereign and all descriptions of his people, would venture to recommend to his Sovereign to consider himself at peace, and to place his armies upon a peace establishment. We must, on the contrary, if we take this large cession, consider the operations of the war as deferred till France shall find a suitable opportunity of endeavouring to regain what she has lost; and, after having wasted our resources in the maintenance of overgrown military establishments in time of peace, we shall find how little useful the cessions we shall have acquired will be against a national effort to regain them.—In my opinion, then, we ought to continue to keep our great object, the genuine peace and tranquillity of the world, in our view, and shape our arrangement so as to provide for it.—Revolutionary France is more likely to distress the world than France, however strong in her frontier, under a regular Government; and that is the situation in which we ought to endeavour to place her.—With this view I prefer the temporary occupation of some of the strong places, and to maintain for a time a strong force in France, both at the expense of the French Government, and under strict regulation, to the permanent cession of even all the places which in my opinion ought to be occupied for a time. These measures will not only give us, during the period of occupation, all the military security which could be expected from the permanent cession, but, if carried

into execution, there is no in France Government will give them manner as also of the points on the present restore the successors, stability to a tempo paper, draw clear the of the Allies entirely diff party occ if the meas of support instead of, and ultima —I am I measure, t needly to i in which the treaty of I year. Th introducing after twent of Europe time and n marks of the men, and France, it more powe neighbour and their n the whole, the period, laye but I entirely co occupation

Respecto Waterloo

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the disposal of the troops, they are in themselves the bond of peace.—There is no doubt that the troops of the Allies stationed in France will give strength and security to the Government of the King, and that their presence will give the King leisure to form his army in such manner as he may think proper. The expectation also of the arrival of the period at which the several points occupied should be evacuated would tend to the preservation of peace, while the engagement to restore them to the King, or his legitimate heirs or successors, would have the effect of giving additional stability to his throne.—In answer to the objections to a temporary occupation, contained in ——— paper, drawn from the state of things in ———, I observe that the temporary occupation by the troops of the Allies of part of France will be with views entirely different from those which dictated the temporary occupation of ——— by the French troops; and if the measure is carried into execution on the principle of supporting the King's Government and of peace, instead of, as in ———, with views of immediate plunder and ultimate war, the same results cannot be expected.—I am likewise aware of the objection to this measure, that it will not alone eventually apply a remedy to the state of weakness, in relation to France, in which the powers of Europe have been left by the treaty of Paris; but it will completely for a term of years. This term of years, besides the advantage of introducing into France a system and habits of peace, after twenty-five years of war, will enable the powers of Europe to restore their finances; it will give them time and means to reconstruct the great artificial bulwarks of their several countries, to settle their Governments, and to consolidate their means of defence. France, it is true, will still be powerful, probably more powerful than she ought to be in relation to her neighbours; but, if the Allies do not waste their time and their means, the state of security of each and of the whole, in relation to France, will, at the end of the period, be materially improved, and will probably leave but little to desire.—Upon the whole, then, I entirely concur with you in thinking a temporary occupation the most desirable. Believe me, &c.

"WELLINGTON."

Respecting a proposed history of the battle of Waterloo he thus writes:—

"Paris, 8th August, 1815.

"My dear Sir,—I have received your letter of the 2nd, regarding the battle of Waterloo. The object which you propose to yourself is very difficult of attainment, and, if really attained, is not a little invidious. The history of a battle is not unlike the history of a ball. Some individuals may recollect all the little events of which the great result is the battle won or lost; but no individual can recollect the order in which, or the exact moment at which, they occurred, which makes all the difference as to their value or importance. Then the faults or the misbehaviour of some gave occasion for the distinction of others, and perhaps were the cause of material losses; and you cannot write a true history of a battle without including the faults and misbehaviour of part at least of those engaged. Believe me that every man you see in a military uniform is not a hero; and that, although in the account given of a general action, such as that of Waterloo, many instances of individual heroism must be passed over unrecorded, it is better for the general interests to leave those parts of the story untold, than to tell the whole truth. If, however, you should still think it right to turn your attention to this subject, I am most ready to give you every assistance and information in my power. Believe me, &c.

"WELLINGTON."

"Paris, 17th August, 1815.

"My dear Sir,—I have received your letter of the 11th, and I regret much that I have not been able to prevail upon you to relinquish your plan.—You may depend upon it you will never make it a satisfactory work.—I will get you the list of the French army, Generals, &c.—Just to show you how little reliance can be placed, even on what are supposed to be the best accounts of a battle, I mention that there are some circumstances mentioned in General ———'s account which did not occur as he relates them.—He was not on the field during the whole battle, particularly not during the latter part of it.—The battle began, I believe, at eleven.—It is impossible

to say when each important occurrence took place, nor in what order. We were attacked first with infantry only; then with cavalry only; lastly and principally with cavalry and infantry mixed.—No houses were possessed by the enemy in Mont St. Jean, excepting the farm in front of the left of our centre, on the road to Genappe, can be called one. This they got, I think, at about two o'clock, and got it from a circumstance which is to be attributed to the neglect of the officer commanding on the spot.—The French cavalry were on the plateau in the centre between the two high roads for nearly three quarters of an hour, riding about among our squares of infantry, all firing having ceased on both sides. I moved our squares forward to the guns; and our cavalry, which had been detached by Lord Uxbridge to the flanks, was brought back to the centre. The French cavalry were then driven off. After that circumstance, repeated attacks were made along the whole front of the centre of the position by cavalry and infantry till seven at night. How many I cannot tell.—When the enemy attacked Sir Thomas Picton I was there, and they got as far as the hedge on the cross road, behind which the ——— had been formed. The latter had run away, and our troops were on our side of the hedge. The French were driven off with immense loss. This was the first principal attack. At about two in the afternoon, as I have above said, they got possession of the farm house on the high road, which defended this part of the position; and they then took possession of a small mound on the left of the high road going from Bruxelles, immediately opposite the gate of the farm; and they were never removed from thence till I commenced the attack in the evening; but they never advanced farther on that side.—These are answers to all your queries; but remember, I recommend you to leave the battle of Waterloo as it is. Believe me, &c.

WELLINGTON."

We will not say one word to recommend this work to our readers. All who have the means must procure it, and it should pass down from generation to generation—"from this day to the ending of the world," as an heir-loom in the families of Britons.

On the Influence which the Seasons exercise upon Mortality at different Ages in Belgium.—[De l'Influence des Saisons, &c. &c.] By A. Quetelet. Bruxelles. London, Dulau.

Mons. Quetelet possesses, in the highest degree, one of the leading attributes of genius, tenacity of idea,—the parent of that disposition to patience and perseverance, which is essential to the working out of great principles. The present paper is another of his contributions to statistical knowledge, designed to fill up the outline contained in his work on the Development of the Human Faculties [*Athen.* Nos. 406, 407, 409]; and it is marked by the same painful labour in the construction of tables, and the same philosophical quickness and lucidity of apprehension, in eliminating consequences, and eliciting order, as distinguish his previous publications. To those who are accustomed to look at statistical tables as the instruments merely of actuaries and of dabblers in insurance, this inquiry into the influence of the seasons on mortality will be estimated as mere trifling; for its money-making virtues are nil: it has, however, a direct bearing on physiology and medicine, involving considerations of high interest to the physician, and promising a proportionate practical utility to society at large.

From the earliest history of physis, the influence of the seasons on the generation of epidemics, and, consequently, on the mortality of the species, was well known; nor could it easily have been otherwise; since, in the rudest conditions of society, the animal is placed the most constantly in unprotected contact with nature, and exposed to the whole action of its elements. Not only is the scene of man's labours and pleasures, in those ages, most exclusively in the

field,—not only is he, then, worse clothed, and worse housed, than in more civilized periods, but the earth itself, uncultivated, wild, covered with forests, unopened by labour, and undrained of its superfluous waters, is more extensively affected in its relations to health, by small meteorological differences. Accordingly, attention was, from the very dawn of medical inquiry, drawn, by constant and reiterated suffering, to these causes of disease; and the works of Hippocrates are a monument of the labour which was bestowed by physicians on this part of their science, and of the vast knowledge which may be acquired by attentive observation, unassisted by philosophical instruments, and undirected by philosophical generalizations. Down to a very recent period, the fashion, thus set, prevailed in medicine; and even still there are writers, who hold that an acquaintance with the meteorological character of the moment is essential to the perfect knowledge and cure of diseases. That this notion has grown in any degree obsolete, is to be attributed not only to the changes induced upon the earth's surface by human labour, (which have banished or mitigated some of the most destructive epidemics,) and to the increased exposure of the human frame to artificial, social excitements, (generating new diseases less directly connected with the seasons), but also to the more effectual and active remedies introduced into practice, which have operated to turn men's minds somewhat away from the precursors of disease, and to fix them preferably on curative processes. But though Europe is now far less generally and extensively visited by those sweeping and mortal diseases, which seem to have depended (in a great degree at least) upon atmospheric causes, and which in their baleful activity, from time to time, made notable inroads upon population, yet, even now, the effects of particular constitutions of the atmosphere upon human health are cognizable in many striking phenomena; and there are few who have not had personal means of knowing, that particular epochs of the year are unfavourable to certain classes of invalids. With a few obvious exceptions, however, the influence of seasons on the luxurious inhabitants of great nations is now very much confined to more or less remarkable exasperations of maladies common to the whole year; and although these exasperations are accompanied by an increase in the numbers afflicted, and in the general mortality of the disease, yet is it not ordinarily to that degree which is calculated to excite alarm, and to fix the public mind on the phenomenon. The most striking exception to this proposition, is to be found in the occasional prevalence of the epidemic influenza, which is manifestly connected with such extravagances of season, such excesses of severity in the weather, as the least apprehensive observers cannot fail to note.

To medical practitioners the general fact is well known, that the winter and spring months produce them a vast increase of business; that more especially when those seasons are severe or variable, trifling and insignificant maladies are aggravated in intensity, and their number is very much increased,—that feverish colds, rheumatisms, &c. prevail,—that measles and scarlet fevers are apt to show particular symptoms,—and that children are more liable to croup, and other affections of the windpipe and lungs. There is also a notion among the profession, that severe winters are very trying to the aged; but few, beyond the more scientific observers, are probably aware, that the annual course of the sun through the Zodiac, independently of any marked peculiarity of weather, exerts, with great regularity, an average influence on the mortality of man; and that each month of the year has its definite share of destruction, which falls, in particular months,

preferably upon subjects of a particular age and state of physiological development.

To trace this fact, by dint of direct observations, through its details, (influenced as they must be by the accidents of each particular year,) and to generalize the result of a long series of practice, would be an effort beyond the reach of individual powers. Where the disturbing causes are so many, and the action of particular influences so difficultly disengaged from that of other concomitants, it would be much for the common observer to suspect even the operation of any constant law; and the notion of its existence, if entertained at all, would hardly pass for more than a fanciful theory, the produce of an over-speculative and imaginative disposition of mind. To a question of this kind, the deductions of statistical science are peculiarly applicable, as affording a short road to the fact; and it is to this question that Mons. Quetelet has applied the test; or rather has laid a foundation for its future application. Starting from the acknowledged position, that the winter months are marked by a greater mortality than the warmer seasons, he proposes to inquire whether this mortality equally affects all ages; and if the *maxima* and the *minima* of deaths fall invariably in the same months, for the different epochs of life at which death occurs.

To this end, he constructed a series of mensural tables of mortality, for men and for women, for the inhabitants of cities, and for the rural population. The sources of these tables are official documents, collected for the use of the Minister of the Interior of Belgium; they embrace about 400,000 observations, and are spread over the five years, from 1827 to 1831. It is obviously beyond our power to make any useful extract from these tables, or to follow the author through his reasonings and calculations. We shall confine ourselves, therefore, to a short statement of the principal results. From the first of his printed tables, we learn that the influence of the seasons on mortality is particularly remarkable in the case of the aged; and that it is the smallest in those between twenty and twenty-five years of age. This result of the figures confirms the physiological doctrine, that animal temperature is maintained by a corresponding exertion and consumption of living power; while it confutes two very prevalent fallacies: first, that a green Christmas makes a fat churchyard; and secondly, that what are termed hardy habits,—that is to say, a fool-hardy exposure of the person to the severity of the weather, is conducive to the health of those on, and after, the turn of life. We are ourselves satisfied, that at no period of life is the custom of light clothing adapted to our climate; that infants, more especially, are systematically killed by cold washings, and that children of all ages suffer severely from want of due attention to the preservation of animal temperature during the winter, both by sufficient clothing and by comfortable habitations.—[See *Athen.* No. 563, article on the U.S. Report on School-houses.]

The winter is, in a very striking degree, the season most unfavourable to life, in those past the period of complete organic development; after that the spring; then comes the autumn; while the summer shows the smallest number of deaths. This confirms the received doctrine, that variation of temperature is injurious to health, independently of absolute excess. The winter chiefly attacks the feeble by the expenditure it demands of animal power; the spring and fall probably produce their mortality through the acute diseases they occasion. Nothing is more common than for old persons, when attacked by sub-acute inflammatory affections, to die cured. That is to say, the remedies employed remove the symptoms for which they were applied; but the powers of life sink under the effort of resist-

ance, and the necessary applications of the physician. By a note at the end of the paper, it appears that at the Havannah, where the annual variation of temperature is small, the mensural differences of mortality among the aged are very trifling.

The total maximum of deaths occurs in the month of February; the total minimum in July. The numerical difference between these terms increases as life advances. At twenty-five it is but as 125 to 100, but it finishes by rising to the ratio of 255 to 100.

But amidst this general relation of temperature to mortality, there occurs a partial, but sensible, increase of deaths upon the first subsidence of the great summer heats. The month of October shows fewer deaths than either that of September or November.

In the early epoch of life, and especially during the first year, there occurs a secondary maximum for the months of excessive heat; inferior, indeed, in amount to that of the winter months, but still sufficiently remarkable. This, perhaps, could hardly have been expected *à priori*; the natural temperature in infancy being habitually above that of adults, it might be thought that a smaller expenditure of vital power was necessary to resist the summer heat. Accordingly, it may be suspected that the increase of deaths at that period of the year, is, in some degree, the result of nursery mismanagement; and this probability is increased, when it is recollected that infants are subject to diseases of great acuteness, and accompanied by fever,—diseases in which excess of temperature becomes a dangerous cause of aggravation of symptoms. Cool, well ventilated apartments, the avoiding all excess in bed-clothes, and minute attention to personal cleanliness, are powerful auxiliaries in the treatment of the inflammatory diseases of children.

Mons. Quetelet calls his reader's attention to the fact, that this secondary summer maximum disappears, with regard to children within the month, who, he says, seem to follow the fortunes of their mother. The reason of the difference appears to be, that the child, born in summer, arrives in an atmosphere not very different from that which it has quitted; so that at birth, it is, in all likelihood, more favourably circumstanced in respect to heat than the children born in winter; whereas those who have, in the hot season, attained to three or more months, have, if we may so speak, already learned to live in a colder region, their organs are accommodated to a cooler atmosphere, and a change in the thermometer average from 60° to 80°, is, with regard to them, a violence requiring an exercise of vital resistance not called for in the new-born infant.

From after the completion of the first year, and onwards to the twelfth, the maximum of deaths advances, by a series of oscillations, from January to the month of May. After remaining there for some time, between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five, it returns gradually backwards to February; and there it remains steadily until the decline of life. The range of years thus marked by a maximum of spring mortality, is that during which inflammatory disease prevails, and consumption develops its fatal activity. It is precisely in these diseases that variability of temperature is so important an accident.

After the first year, the minimum of mortality becomes placed very regularly at five or six months distance from the maximum, wherever that may be. It occurs in August, from the first to the eighth year; and thence to the twentieth, it is found in October.

If the seasons be classed in the order of their relative mortality, as regards all ages, they will stand thus:—spring, winter, summer, autumn.

But with special reference to the epoch of puberty, mortality ranges in the order of spring,

summer, winter, and autumn. Inflammatory fevers, pleurisies, and spittings of blood, are the probable causes of this increase of summer mortality.

In after life, the order of mortality is that already indicated—winter, spring, autumn, summer.

From twelve to twenty-five there is a relative diminution of mortality for January,—the fatal month with all other ages. This again shows the value of vital power, in resisting the effects of cold: at the period of youth, frost and snow seem only to develop a healthful re-action; and, at that happy age, the winter months are those of amusement and enjoyment.

It further appears, that the variations of maximum and minimum, above indicated, are nearly the same for either sex, both as to times and values; but this is not the case with respect to the absolute number of deaths. Immediately after birth, four boys die to three girls.

From about two to twelve years, the deaths of the two sexes are equal.

From twelve to twenty, the male deaths are to the female as 20 to 25.

From twenty-five to thirty, the equilibrium is again established.

From thirty to fifty more women die than men, [on account of the dangers of pregnancy and child-birth]; from fifty to sixty-five, the contrary is decidedly the case.

After sixty-five, the female deaths again prevail, (because at that age the surviving female are more numerous than the males).

The influence of sex and season on the number of still-born children is nearly the same as on the new born, though less decidedly pronounced. Residence in towns or in the country makes no change in the order of maxima and minima; but in the country the excesses are more strongly marked.

Such are the conclusions to which Mons. Quetelet's researches have led as to the mortality of Belgium; and it is likely that they will apply with much accuracy to these kingdoms. The data, however, from which they have been drawn, are not sufficiently extensive to warrant an entire confidence in the results; and the author has rather pointed out a course of observation, than carried it to a satisfactory conclusion. Whenever the necessary labour shall be completed, the consequences will, of necessity, be more trustworthy than the ordinary axioms of pathology; which, at best, are more mixed up with opinion, than is usually suspected. Figures, when correctly employed, cannot err; and when the facts they indicate are once established, the physician is led with greater confidence to the study of causes, and to the application of the appropriate remedies.

Memoirs and Correspondence of Admiral Lord de Saumarez: from Original Papers in Possession of the Family. By Sir John Ross, C.B. &c. 2 vols. 8vo. Bentley.

Among the many professional biographies recently published, valuable as contributions to a general history of our army and navy, this life of Lord de Saumarez is not the least interesting. Besides speaking to the English sailor, as a record of brilliant achievements and merited honours, it addresses itself to the sympathy of the general reader, for, like Collingwood, Lord de Saumarez was not only renowned as an admiral, but also beloved as a man. This detail of his life and services, however, has been but indifferently executed by Sir John Ross; the "original papers" have yielded too much trivial and unimportant matter; and the narrative is written in a sentimental and pseudo-pious vein, somewhat nauseating.

The name of De Saumarez is Norman. Our ancestors dwelt in the island of Guernsey from the days of the Norman conquest. They held uninterruptedly the fief of Jerbourg till about the year 1555; and "whenever the Lord had occasion to go to Jersey, his tenants were obliged to convey him thither, for which they received a gratuity of *three sous*, or a dinner; but they were not obliged to bring him back." It might be that that position, no less than inclination, led more than one of the family to seek distinction on the sea. Captains Philip and Thomas Saumarez, uncles of our hero, signified themselves in the service,—the former was first lieutenant under Commodore Anson, and was killed in action in 1747; the latter is remembered by his extraordinary capture of the French sixty-four, *Bellicieux*, in the Bristol Channel,—but eighteen hours having elapsed between his sitting at one of the turtle dinners of that hospitable city, and his returning thither in triumph with the prize! The father of our hero, however, was a physician; his distinguished son being born in the parish of St. Peter-Port, on the 11th of March 1757.

The future admiral was educated at Elizabeth College, Guernsey, where he gave evidence of refined taste rather than of distinguished talent. His home, Sir John Ross tells us, was a happy one,—a loyal one too, as are most homes in Guernsey. There the officers of the passing ships were constantly entertained; and in July 1767, Dr. Saumarez was knocked up at two in the morning, by direction of the Lieutenant Governor,—the latter feeling himself unequal to support such honour,—to receive the Duke of Gloucester. "King and country" therefore became, naturally enough, the device of young Saumarez, whose ardent desire to serve them was gratified, in the year 1767, by his being entered on board the *Soleby*, Capt. O'Brien. Before, however, he had seen any service, he was transferred to the *Winchelsea*, Capt. Samuel Cranston Goodall:—

"On his departure from home, his affectionate father put a purse containing fifteen guineas in his hand; observing that, as he knew he had a large family, he trusted that he would use it with economy, but that when he wanted more he might draw on his banker. So strictly, however, did he fulfil this recommendation, that his father said, the sight of his debts gave him pleasure."

He remained in the *Winchelsea* from the end of the year 1770 till February 1772, when, on that vessel being ordered home, he was transferred to the *Levant*, Captain Thompson. For fourteen months did that ship remain inactive on her station, as protector of the Mediterranean trade, before she was paid off; so that Saumarez cannot be said to have entered upon the seaman's active life, till the breaking out of the American war, when he joined Sir Peter Parker in the *Bristol*, his fleet being about to sail for America. He was then about eighteen years of age. Before arriving at their destination, he had rendered himself so acceptable to Earl Cornwallis, who went out in the ship, that the latter offered to make him his aide-de-camp, and provided him with a commission in the 33rd, his own regiment, if he would leave the sea-service. He had more than half consented, when the jeers of his messmates, about his "turning soldier," moved stronger than the persuasions of Lord Cornwallis, and the scheme was abandoned.

The first action in which Saumarez took part was the attack on Fort Sullivan, commanding Charleston harbour. This was a perilous engagement: the cannonade lasted for eleven hours.

"At one time, the quarter-deck of the *Bristol* was cleared of every one except the commodore, who stood on the poop-ladder alone.—During this severe conflict, Mr. Saumarez had a very narrow escape: at the moment he was pointing a gun on the lower-deck,

of which he had the command, a shot from the fort entered the port-hole, struck the gun, and killed seven out of eight men who were stationed to work it. Some time afterwards, being called on deck to execute certain orders respecting the replacing the spring on the cable, he was standing close to Mr. Darley, a midshipman, for whom he had the greatest regard, when a shot took off the young man's head, and covered Mr. Saumarez with his blood."

For his meritorious conduct in this affair, Sir Peter Parker promoted him to the rank of Lieutenant. In this new capacity he was actively employed, though less actively than he wished. However, when transferred with Sir Peter to the *Chatham*, he so often distinguished himself in the boats, that on the 17th February 1778 he was appointed to the command of the *Spitfire*, a schooner-rigged galley, ordered for Rhode Island. On his passage thither, and after reaching his destination, Lieut. Saumarez gave new proofs of his seamanship as well as his bravery. It is impossible to notice these *seriatim*.—enough to say, that while the *Spitfire* was under his command, from the 17th of Feb. to Aug. 4, she was engaged with the enemy no less than forty-seven times! He next served as aide-de-camp to Commodore Brisbane. When the French abandoned Rhode Island, Saumarez returned to England, but was immediately appointed first lieutenant of the *Edgar*, "then fitting at Woolwich, for the broad pendant of Commodore Elliot." After a succession of unimportant changes, and minor exploits, we next find our hero high in favour with Vice-Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, and accompanying him in the *Fortitude* to the North Seas. After the action with the Dutch Admiral Zoutman, on the 5th August, 1781,

"Lieutenant Saumarez was sent to conduct the Preston, one of the disabled ships, into port, her commander, Captain Grame, having lost his arm in the action. When Admiral Parker arrived at the Nore, his Majesty paid the squadron a visit; but the veteran commander, indignant at the conduct of ministers, who, he conceived, ought to have reinforced his squadron instead of allowing some fine ships to lie idle in port, received the King with that rough hauteur peculiar to himself, observing, 'I wish your Majesty better ships and younger officers. As for myself, I am now too old for the service.'"

Lieut. Saumarez remained a favourite with "Vinegar Parker," though, to use the latter's language, "the fractious disposition of the old man" was sometimes difficult to be borne with patience. But the Admiral's recommendation to George the Third, and his own bravery, led to his being promoted to the rank of Commander of the *Tisiphone*, "a fire-ship, constructed on a new plan, and armed with carronades, which was then fitting at Sheerness." The *Tisiphone* was destined for Channel service, and placed under the command of the ill-starred Admiral Kempenfelt. After distinguishing himself in the action of the 12th of December, Capt. Saumarez was ordered to make the best of his way to the West Indies, and place himself under the command of Sir Samuel Hood. Nothing was so much to his mind as any post offering a chance of action. Great, then, was his mortification, shortly after joining the fleet, to find the *Tisiphone* ordered home with despatches. We must quote the sequel:—

"I was," says he, "in my own boat, with the despatches in my hand; and with a heavy heart had ordered the bow-man to shove off, when Captain Stanhope, of the *Russell*, came alongside, and seeing me called: 'Hollo! Saumarez, where are you going?' 'To England,' said I, 'I am sorry to tell you!'—'Sorry,' replied Stanhope; 'I wish I was in your place; I want to go home on account of my health; and, if I had known, I would have exchanged with you.'—Perhaps it is not too late," said L.—"Hold on then," said he, "till I speak to the admiral, since I have your leave."

"By this time the *Russell's* boat was alongside the admiral's ship; and at the word 'Hold on!'

which was emphatically repeated by Saumarez, the bow-man hooked the quarter of the *Russell's* barge, and he remained but a few minutes in breathless suspense; after which Captain Stanhope appeared at the gangway, and called, 'Come up, Saumarez.' He was on deck in an instant, and found that, on Captain Jackson being asked to submit the proposal to the admiral, he said, 'Let Captain Saumarez do it himself, he is the fittest person.'

"When Sir Samuel Hood heard the application, he was silent, and after reflecting for a few minutes he said, 'Captain Saumarez, you know not how much I wish to serve you; Captain Stanhope shall go home as he desires, and you shall have command of the *Russell*.' Accordingly, before the close of that day, Captain Stanhope was on board the *Tisiphone* on his way to England; while her late commander was in possession of his post-rank, and captain of one of his Majesty's ships of the line of seventy-four guns; and all this effected in less than two hours!"

The *Russell* was almost in a state of mutiny when Captain Saumarez undertook the command, but, thanks to his judicious management, her crew were presently brought to a perfect state of discipline. In Lord Rodney's action off Dominica, April 12, 1782, the *Russell* distinguished herself, as on a subsequent occasion Captain Tornquist took occasion to testify, when he greeted Sir James in the harbour of Carlisle, with "Mon Dieu! Monsieur l'Amiral, nous avons brûlé le poudre ensemble; allons boire un coup." On the 24th of September the *Russell* was paid off, and Captain Saumarez promoted to the rank of Post-Captain. After a few years' quiet residence at Guernsey, he married, in the autumn of the year 1788, and remained on shore till the breaking out of the French Revolution, when he was appointed to the *Crescent*. In this ship it was his good fortune to fall in with and capture the *Réunion*. The details of this affair are given by Sir John Ross, with injudicious minuteness.

Sir James Saumarez (for he was knighted on this occasion) next rose to the command of a small squadron, under the orders of Admiral M'Bride. The details of his exploits in the Channel are principally furnished from his own letters. On the 8th of June, 1794, the *Crescent*, and the *Druid*, Capt. Ellison, engaged with a French squadron of superior force, while endeavouring to cover the retreat of Capt. Cole in the *Eurydice*.

"Observing that his own ship and the *Druid* had the advantage in sailing, and that the *Eurydice*, which was not only in bad condition but a bad sailer, would fall into their hands, he shortened sail, and having ordered the *Eurydice* by signal to push for Guernsey, he contrived, by occasionally showing a disposition to engage, to amuse the enemy, and lead him off until the *Eurydice* was safe. He now tacked, and, in order to save the *Druid*, closed with the enemy, passing along their line; and the capture of the *Crescent* seemed at one time inevitable. The *Druid* meanwhile made her escape, with the *Eurydice*, into Guernsey Roads.

"But Sir James Saumarez had for his own preservation a scheme which, in the first instance, required great courage; in the second, a perfect knowledge of a most dangerous and intricate channel; and, in the last, a consummate skill in the management of his ship. He was himself well acquainted with the coast, and possessed an experienced pilot, John Breton, a native, whose house was on that extremity of the island. As soon therefore as the other two ships were secure, he bore up as if to run his ship on the rocks, to avoid capture. Ordering his pilot to steer the *Crescent* through a narrow passage between the rocks, which had never before been attempted by a ship of her size, and defying the enemy to follow him, he reached the anchorage in safety, to the no small surprise and mortification of the French, who, after firing some time over the rocks at the ship, were obliged, by the shot of the *Crescent* and that of the batteries, to give up the contest.

"It is worthy of remark that, after passing through the narrow channel, the ship had to sail so near to

the shore of Côté parish, that he could distinctly see his own house,—a position truly singular, for behind he beheld a French prison, and before him his own fireside! While passing through the narrowest part of the channel, Sir James asked the pilot if he was sure he could see the marks for running through? when he replied, 'I am quite sure, for there is your house, and there is my own!'

In January, 1795, Sir James was attached to the fleet under Lord Howe, till removed, at his own request, from the *Crescent* to the *Orion*, a line-of-battle ship. On the 23rd of June, in the action off L'Orient, he was foremost in the fleet, and "the first which actually began the action with one of the enemy's largest ships." But notices of exploits and achievements succeed each other so closely, that, having, in the above *résumé* of our hero's earlier services, indicated the bravery, the activity, and the seamanship, which raised him to the highest honours of his profession, we must henceforth proceed with a narrative yet more fragmentary and compressed. As one of Sir John Jervis's fleet, the *Orion* distinguished herself off Cape St. Vincent: her commander, too, when ordered by that Admiral to proceed in person with the boats destined to cut out the gun-vessels off Cadiz, gave proof of his considerate humanity, in nominating as his companions in that perilous service only such as were unmarried. It is a pity that Sir John Ross should have spoiled the effect of so honourable a trait, by his loose method of narration.

In the next chapter we find Sir James Saumarez second in command under the flag of Nelson, and by his side in Aboukir Bay. He writes to Lady Saumarez, on this occasion, "that the enemy have now obtained the chastisement of their past crimes, and Sir Horatio Nelson has the happiness of being the fortunate instrument of inflicting their just punishment." Somewhat too much of this sermonizing tone creeps increasingly into his later correspondence, especially when it touches on the much desired Peerage, which at last he received. This renders the book less palatable as we proceed. Some small jealousy, too, is to be noted on the occasion of the battle of Aboukir, in consequence of a supposed slight in Nelson's despatches. In preference to discussing so delicate a grievance, we shall close our present notice with a familiar home letter, written at a later period, when Sir James had been nominated by Lord St. Vincent as commander of the in-shore squadron of the Channel fleet, and addressed by the latter in these terms:—"I repose such unbounded confidence in your zeal and judgment, that I sleep as soundly as if I had the key of Brest in my possession."

"Caesar, off the Black Rocks. Sept. 12th, 1800.

"Sir Henry Harvey has joined the fleet, which makes up the complement of flags; and it remains to be proved if the Earl has influence to effect what he so strenuously aims at respecting the promotion. I form very sanguine hopes that peace will shortly extend its blessed influence over these countries; and that I shall have the satisfaction to enjoy, without interruption, the sweets of domestic comfort. I certainly shall avail myself of the earliest respite the service will enable me to pass in the island; and I think I may have that opportunity this winter; for if the war should be continued, there is no doubt that a promotion would give me, at least, six weeks interval from duty; at any rate, I see no reason for the future affording you anxiety, as whether there, or in England, I depend on our passing a considerable portion of the winter together. I hope Master Saumarez knows his alpha, beta, &c. by heart. When convenient to the young gentleman, I shall be glad that he will take the trouble to transcribe it for me to Omega, as I have no Greek grammar by me. I can readily believe the difficulty that attends fixing the little ladies to the French grammar, whose particularly quick and lively temper is not much suited to so tedious a process. I think, notwithstanding, it

is the best method, especially as the same grammatical rules are adapted to any language, which they will find useful hereafter. Dancing, no doubt, has more attractions. I trust they have quite got rid of their colds: their papa has also had a very severe one, and kept his cabin for two days; but he is now perfectly recovered.

"September 18th. I admire N., with his comments on Colchester. When you next write, recommend him to try the Black Rocks in a thick fog, and no chance of letters from England: he will find even Norman Cross preferable. I, however, believe I have done with that anchorage for some time, as the wind is set in to the westward; and I shall now cruise to prevent vessels going into Brest.

"I am happy to say I am perfectly well. I trust my nerves will prove equal to the task; as I have before often told you, they generally strengthen with difficulties."

Historical Sketch of the Rise, Progress, and Decline of the Reformation in Poland. By Count Valerian Krasiński. Vol. I.

[Second Notice.]

The leading doctrines of Wycliffe, the first and greatest of our reformers, and in what manner those doctrines were introduced into Bohemia, are well known; but every reader, perhaps, has not taken so wide a view of the subject as it deserves. The Bohemians who accompanied the queen of our Richard I. to this country, were more numerous than is generally supposed,—so numerous that complaints were made of Englishmen being much injured by that monarch's partiality for them,—that he conferred on them places and pensions to the detriment of such as had a higher claim. Of these foreigners many studied at Oxford; some, unconnected with the royal household, were yet, through the queen's influence, persuaded to leave their native plains for the banks of the Isis or the Cam. Jerome, the disciple of Huss, was probably of the number. After the queen's death, most of them being disliked by the people, returned to their own country. While in England, they had imbibed, and deeply imbibed, most of Wycliffe's opinions. The Bohemians had never, as a people, been well affected towards the Popes; they had never loved the Germanic church, which, though its heads—at least its temporal heads—had frequently resisted those pontiffs, had yet been essentially Roman Catholic; they had always regarded pope, ecclesiastical princes and emperor, as equally opposed to their civil and religious liberties. Hence the hostility between the Slavonic and Teutonic branches of the state, from Ottocar down to the sixteenth century,—and indeed later than the sixteenth, for the famous Thirty Years' War exhibited as much of this feeling as any previous time. It had exasperated the minds of the Bohemians—even those of the lowest class—who detested the very name of German, and who were ready to embrace any religion which removed them from all dependence on emperor and pope. Besides, as their national church, like that of their Slavonic brethren in Silesia and Poland, had been originally planted, or at least frequently visited, by Greek missionaries, they had retained many usages not allowed to other churches, and feelings of independence to which the Latin Christians were strangers. Huss, therefore, and his fellow labourers found a soil prepared—thirsting for their doctrines, and still more for their discipline. Abstract questions, like those which began to agitate the minds of polemical disputants, could be understood only by the few: but the peasant could understand the preacher who told him, that he was not compelled to go to confession, which was purely a human ordinance; that bishops were tyrannical incubi on the church; that all men were equally free, equally privileged; that the layman was just as good as the priest, and

might administer a sacrament with equal efficacy. This was plain, intelligible language; and when associated, as it generally was, with denunciations against temporal no less than spiritual rulers,—with the assurance that Christian liberty, the birthright of all born within the pale of Christianity, involved civil no less than religious equality; that distinctions of all kinds were invasions of natural right, and of God's economy, and ought to be resisted; how could people, for ages oppressed, be insensible to the appeal? They received the new doctrine with ardour; they disseminated it among their neighbours, the Moravians, the Silesians, the Poles,—all of the same great race as themselves, and therefore entitled to an equality of blessings. As for the Germans,—let them remain in twofold slavery: no true Slavonian would have moved one foot to enfranchise the whole of that race.

One reason why the doctrines of the reformation were so rapidly spread from Bohemia into Poland, was that the majority of Polish youths resorted to the University of Prague; here they had their own college, founded expressly for them by one of their queens, Hedwig. From the very first, both Huss and Jerome (the latter had preached in Poland) had a strong party among the Polish nobles. Huss, who had translated the writings of Wycliffe into the Bohemian language, and had consequently made them intelligible to the Poles, whose dialect was so kindred, speaks with gratitude of the "Poloni tamquam strenuosi defensores veritatis Dei," who offered him every assistance, who made his cause their own. Many of the Polish clergy were on his side,—we mean, of course, the common clergy, for in no church are the higher ranks much inclined to novelties. That the Hussite doctrines made very early and very rapid progress in Poland is evident from one fact—that in 1416 the synod of Wielun decreed the severest penalties against all who professed them. Large bodies move slowly, and these fathers of the synod did not move until the heretics were becoming numerous,—until their revenues were beginning to suffer. When this did not answer, another synod, that of Lenczyca (1423) went farther, and empowered any priest to imprison and bring before the diocesan tribunal all who were even suspected of heresy. And, to cut up the evil by the roots, there was to be no more intercourse with Bohemia: youths were no longer to be sent there, nor teachers of that nation received into the Polish schools. The books, too, which the sectarians had distributed, were to be seized. In the following year the Polish king approved of all these severities, and heresy was declared high treason. But political considerations prevented for a long time the infliction of the new penal code. The Bohemians, who had quarrelled with their Austrian sovereign, as much on religious as temporal grounds, were anxious to elect the Polish king in his stead; the Polish king was therefore loth to exasperate a people who might soon become his subjects. Besides, some of his most powerful nobles were the brethren of these people. Thus, though an obscure, unknown heretic, who had neither family nor religious influence, was sometimes put to death, on the whole, the reformation continued to spread during the fifteenth century.

The success which attended the efforts of Martin Luther in Germany, was not likely to be without its effect in Poland. Many Poles resorted to the University of Wittenberg, not in the first instance to learn heresy, but in consequence of the encouragements held out by the elector of Saxony to all who should graduate in that already flourishing seat of learning. On their return to Poland, they naturally spread the knowledge of Luther's doctrines. Dante, too,

the chief town of Polish Russia, espoused them with ardour, and its example had considerable weight on the cities of Poland. Synod after synod indeed decreed the severest penalties against all who separated from the ancient church; but synods did not constitute the nation; they were subject to the diets; and though the majority of the nobles, with the monarch at their head, were still of that church, many of great influence, of powerful family connexions, were either secret or open favourers of the Reformation. The inferior ranks of the clergy had many of the same opinions: nay, even confessors of the court were among the partisans of the new faith. Some of the clergy married, and when summoned before the episcopal tribunal to answer for the irregularity, appeared with so many friends that the bishop was frequently compelled to drop the prosecution.

Among the persons who had the greatest share in the spread of the new doctrines was Stanislas Orzechowski, well known to learned Europe under his Latinized name of Orichovius. This man, who enjoyed the personal friendship of Luther and Melancthon, having completed his studies at Wittenberg, paid a visit to Rome—probably for the purpose of showing that whatever he might be in heart, he outwardly conformed to the established church; he returned to Poland, took holy orders, and was presented as a canon in the cathedral church of Przemyśl, in Galicia. In his conduct we observe, from the first, much of worldly, calculating policy. He did not openly assail the Roman church; no, he began by discussing the acts of some former councils in respect to the Greek schismatics—well knowing that as the majority of the people in his province were in communion with the Greek church, he should acquire popularity by so doing. His next step was to defend clerical marriage—a theme, too, in which he was sure to have the support of the Greek clergy who do marry, and of such Latin clergy as wished to marry. Being cited for these opinions before his ecclesiastical superiors, he recanted without hesitation. Soon afterwards, however, a clergyman being summoned to answer for the crime of marriage, Orichovius took his part, and was his best champion. Not satisfied with this act, he took a wife himself, and when summoned before his diocesan, appeared as so many others had done, with friends enough to screen him from imprisonment, though not from excommunication. Little did the church at this time know with what a man she had to deal. Instead of submitting to the ecclesiastical penalty, he boldly entered the cathedral, and in presence of the congregation not only defended the step which he had taken, but inveighed in no measured terms against his persecutors. He appealed from the bishop to the archbishop—merely to gain time; and when the decree of confiscation was confirmed by the crown, the palatine of Cracow durst not put it into execution, but suspended it until the meeting of the next diet. Why did the palatine act thus? Because he knew how many thousands within his jurisdiction held the same opinions; and perhaps he was not disposed to give more power to the church by employing the secular arm in her behalf. Her pretensions, indeed, became generally odious. So long as spiritual thunders only could be hurled by her, her own children were tranquil; but when they involved the loss of property, civil disqualifications of every kind, and even death, many even of the bigotted began to think that this power should not be left to Holy Mother, or at least that her decrees should require confirmation by the civil authority. Hence the opposition to her pretensions displayed by the diet of 1550,—an opposition which the eloquence of Orichovius had done

much to foster. Over its deliberations he certainly obtained a preponderating influence,—the effect, no doubt, of other circumstances besides his commanding talents:—

“Having read before the Nuncios the atrocious expressions of the Roman Catholic excommunication, he put the question whether the bishops should be allowed to dispose of human life by such barbarous decrees? The chamber decided that no one but the monarch had the right of judging citizens, and of condemning them to any penalty whatever; and its orators represented to Sigismund Augustus, that he should not permit the bishops to usurp the privileges of his crown. Orzechowski addressed the king and the senate with equal boldness. He attacked Rome with the most bitter invectives, and justified the matrimony of priests by powerful arguments. The bishops began to perceive their fault, and saw that by their untimely severity they had excited the hatred of the nation, which was rejecting their jurisdiction through the medium of its assembled representatives. The monarch neither dared, nor wished to condemn the heresy defended in such an able and powerful manner. These considerations induced the bishops to adopt a more conciliatory policy; and Maciejowski, bishop of Cracow, who had been always contrary to violence, opposed also on this occasion his wonted moderation to the zeal of his colleagues. The king suspended his decision on that important subject. A conciliatory conversation between the bishops and Orzechowski was suggested by some well-meaning persons. Orzechowski accepted that proposition, and appeared in company with his principal friends; but the clergy could not consent to such a public humiliation as to meet on equal terms a culprit condemned by their authority, and refused him a hearing. They, however, postponed the affair, and, without absolving Orzechowski from the excommunication, suspended its effects. He was to remain quiet until the decision of the Pope, from whom he was to seek the permission of retaining his wife.”

The anti-Romanist opinions of the diet of 1552, many members of which had been returned by the influence of Orichovius, were still more decided. During the celebration of mass,—which preceded the discussions of the diet, just as prayers do those of our Parliament,—some members turned aside their faces at the very moment the host was elevated; and one nobleman—one of the highest in the state—stood the whole time with his hat on his head. In this diet, as might have been foreseen, the clergy were still left the power of cursing (“our armies swore horribly in Flanders”), but the excommunication was no longer invested with a civil power; they might declare, in the abstract, what doctrines were heretical, but they could no longer decree temporal punishment of any kind. This most important decree was confirmed by subsequent diets; and the question was frequently agitated whether it would not be expedient “to remove the bishops from the lords,”—to abolish in regard to the prelates the senatorial dignity which had for so many ages been attached to the ecclesiastical. Who was the chief instrument (we cannot in strict justice say the cause) of these innovations? Orichovius. Yet at this very time he was negotiating his reconciliation with the church: he recanted his heretical opinions, declared his adherence to Rome, was absolved, and promised that the pope should send him a dispensation to keep his wife. But the pope knew better; he knew too that by this apostasy the Pole had lost much of his influence; he therefore temporized, and the indignant Orichovius again became the enemy of the holy see:—

“In order to give an idea of the virulence of his writings, we shall quote some passages of his letters addressed to Pope Julius III.:—‘O holy father, I conjure you for God’s sake, for the sake of our Lord Jesus Christ, and of the holy angels! do read what I am writing to you, and give me an answer; do not play any tricks with me; I shall not give you any money; I wish not to have any bargains with you;

you have taken gratis, you must also give it gratis.’ In another place he addresses the same pontiff:—

‘Consider, O Julius, and consider it well, with what a man you will have to do—not with an Italian, indeed, but with a Russian; not with one of your mean popish subjects, but with a citizen of a kingdom, where the monarch himself is obliged to obey the law. You may condemn me, if you like, to death, but you will not have done with me: the king will not execute your sentence. The cause will be submitted to the Diet. Your Romans bow their knees before the crowd of your menials; they bear on their necks the degrading yoke of the Roman scribes; but such is not the case with us, where the law rules even the throne. The king our lord cannot do what he likes: he must do what the law prescribes. He will not say, as soon as you will give him a sign with your finger, or twinkle before his eyes with the fisherman’s ring, ‘Stanislaus Orzechowski, Pope Julius wishes you should go into exile; go therefore.’ I assure you that the king cannot wish that which you do. Our laws allow him not to imprison, or to exile any one, who has not been condemned by a competent tribunal.’”

Of course, the writings of Orichovius were prohibited by the Congregation of the Index, (a strange congregation this, even in our days,—it has shown its spite to Lingard’s History of England,) and he was termed a follower of Satan, fit for Dathan, Abiram, et hoc genus omne. What cared the Pole?

“Since the abominable Caraffa, who calls himself Paul the IVth, has ejected from the church Moses and Christ, I shall willingly follow them. Can I consider it as a disgrace to be a companion of those whom he calls heretics? This anathema will be an honour and a crown to me. The neglect of the ancient discipline has corrupted and degraded us. Paul the IVth, take care to prevent the final fall of your see. Clear the city from its crimes; eradicate avarice; despise the profits arising from the sale of your favours. I shall clearly explain and prove to my countrymen, that Roman corruption does more harm to the church than the Lutheran perversity.’ He covered the same Pope with the most opprobrious names, as for instance, ‘a sacrilege, a human monster, a wolf, scoundrel, drone, ass, ravenous beast, &c.’ Besides these invectives which he addressed to the Roman pontiff, Orzechowski announced a new work entitled ‘Repudium Rome,’ in which he was to expose all the errors and crimes of the Popes; entirely secede from the Roman church, and pass over to the Greek one, which was followed at that time by a great part of the inhabitants of his native province.”

Yet this very man reverted to the Roman Catholic church, and was gladly received by her. Why? On his part, because his wife was now dead; on theirs, because so powerful an antagonist must be silenced, whatever the price. He not only became a Catholic; but he defended, with as much eloquence as he had before assailed, the discipline in omnibus rebus of that church; and he fell on the Protestants with a fury which he had never equalled when assailing the Popes. Hear this man’s defence of the papal power:—

“The king is established only that he should serve the clergy. The supreme pontiff alone establishes kings, and as he establishes them, he has an authority over them. The hand of a priest is the hand of Jesus Christ himself. The abolition of the archbishop of Gnezno would be followed by the abolition of the Polish crown, the overthrow of the royalty, and the fall of Poland itself. The archbishop of Gnezno is the corner-stone of the state, the first magistrate of the realm, the guardian of the public liberty; he defends the nation, and limits the power of the monarch. The authority of St. Peter cannot be subject to any other, but is superior to all; it pays neither tribute nor taxes. The mission of the priest is superior to that of the king. The king is the subject of the clergy; the king is nothing without the priest. The pope has the right of depriving the king of his crown. The priest serves the altar, but the king serves the priest, and is only his armed minister. The king of Poland is the servant of the priests, and is established that no one should dare to rise against the ecclesiastical authority.”

Still this profligate man was, on the whole,

useful. In the earlier years of his life he fought for the truth, and his arguments remained after his apostasy was forgotten.

The causes which led to the decline of the Reformation in Poland were manifold. The first, both as to time and influence, were the dissensions of the reformers themselves,—Anabaptists, Lutherans, Helvetians, Calvinists, Socinians, Taborites,—each contending for the ascendancy, and each hating the other more bitterly than even the common enemy. Then the Council of Trent removed many abuses in the church, though it left one-half untouched. Next, the King of Poland was so earnestly exhorted by the Pope and other Catholic potentates, to join in the defence of the church, that he could not avoid doing something to gratify them. Next, the introduction of the Jesuits, who had been established for the express purpose of combating heresy. But what tended much more than the two preceding reasons—perhaps than all other reasons—to bring the reformed doctrines into disrepute, was the notorious fact, that some of them were inconsistent with the social organization,—were destructive of the fundamentals of all society. What we have asserted in regard to those inculcated by the Hussite preachers in Bohemia, (derived from Wycliffe,) is equally true of the Polish. Principles which at once levelled the throne and the altar with the ground, which abolished all social distinctions, were boldly proclaimed; and the fear—no irrational one—was entertained, that in Poland, as in Westphalia, the serfs might rise against their masters. But on this subject we shall not expatiate, as our author is not yet arrived at it. It will, no doubt, occupy its due share of his next volume. It is needless to repeat our commendations of what Count Krasinski has already written. All that we are disposed to censure, is an undue inclination to depreciate everything Roman—everything German—even everything Lutheran,—for our author is not of Martin Luther's, but of Calvin's school.

Oliver Twist; or, the Parish Boy's Progress.
By "Box." 3 vols. Bentley.

As nine-tenths of this story have already appeared in *Bentley's Miscellany*, to review the whole, now that it is completed, would be a superfluous labour. But the last tenth contains an escape scene, which our readers will thank us for detaching; and we do this the more readily because, though within a few pages of the close of the 'Parish Boy's Progress,' it does not reveal what that close is. To introduce it, it will be sufficient to notice that Sikes, one of the wretched gang among whom poor Oliver was thrown, has wound up his career of crime by committing a frightful murder. The sequel speaks for itself:

"Near to that part of the Thames on which the church of Rotherhithe abuts, where the buildings on the banks are dirtiest and the vessels on the river blackest with the dust of colliers and the smoke of close-built low-roofed houses, there exists, at the present day, the filthiest, the strangest, the most extraordinary of the many localities that are hidden in London, wholly unknown, even by name, to the great mass of its inhabitants.

"To reach this place, the visitor has to penetrate through a maze of close, narrow, and muddy streets, thronged by the roughest and poorest of water-side people, and devoted to the traffic they may be supposed to occasion. The cheapest and least delicate provisions are heaped in the shops, the coarsest and commonest articles of wearing apparel dangle at the salesman's door, and stream from the house-parapet and windows. Jostling with unemployed labourers of the lowest class, ballast-heavers, coal-whippers, brazen women, ragged children, and the very raff and refuse of the river, he makes his way with difficulty along, assailed by offensive sights and smells from the narrow alleys which branch off on the right

and left, and deafened by the clash of ponderous wagons that bear great piles of merchandise from the stacks of warehouses that rise from every corner. Arriving at length in streets remoter and less frequented than those through which he had passed, he walks beneath tottering house-fronts projecting over the pavement, dismantled walls that seem to totter as he passes, chimneys half crushed half hesitating to fall, windows guarded by rusty iron bars that time and dirt have almost eaten away, and every imaginable sign of desolation and neglect.

"In such a neighbourhood, beyond Dockhead in the Borough of Southwark, stands Jacob's Island, surrounded by a muddy ditch, six or eight feet deep and fifteen or twenty wide when the tide is in, once called Mill Pond, but known in these days as Folly Ditch. It is a creek or inlet from the Thames, and can always be filled at high water by opening the sluices at the Lead Mills from which it took its old name. At such times, a stranger, looking from one of the wooden bridges thrown across it at Mill-lane, will see the inhabitants of the houses on either side lowering from their back doors and windows, buckets, pails, domestic utensils of all kinds, in which to haul the water up; and when his eye is turned from these operations to the houses themselves, his utmost astonishment will be excited by the scene before him. Crazy wooden galleries common to the backs of half-a-dozen houses, with holes from which to look upon the slime beneath; windows broken and patched, with poles thrust out on which to dry linen that is never there; rooms so small, so filthy, so confined, that the air would seem too tainted even for the dirt and squall which they shelter; wooden chambers thrusting themselves out above the mud, and threatening to fall into it—as some have done; dirt-beamed walls and decaying foundations; every repulsive lineament of poverty, every loathsome indication of filth, rot, and garbage;—all these ornament the banks of Folly Ditch.

"In Jacob's Island the warehouses are roofless and empty; the walls are crumbling down; the windows are windows no more; the doors are falling into the street; the chimneys are blackened, but they yield no smoke. Thirty or forty years ago, before losses and chancery suits came upon it, it was a thriving place; but now it is a desolate island indeed. The houses have no owners; they are broken open, and entered upon by those who have the courage, and there they live and there they die. They must have powerful motives for a secret residence, or be reduced to a destitute condition indeed, who seek a refuge in Jacob's Island.

"In an upper room of one of these houses—a detached house of fair size, ruinous in other respects, but strongly defended at door and window, of which the back commanded the ditch in manner already described,—there were assembled three men, who, regarding each other every now and then with looks expressive of perplexity and expectation, sat for some time in profound and gloomy silence. One of these was Toby Crackit, another Mr. Chitling, and the third a robber of fifty years, whose nose had been almost beaten in, in some old scuffle, and whose face bore a frightful scar which might probably be traced to the same occasion. This man was a returned transport, and his name was Kags.

"Whilst the two men sat by in silence with their eyes fixed upon the floor, a pattering noise was heard upon the stairs, and Sikes's dog bounded into the room. They ran to the window, down stairs, and into the street. The dog had jumped in at an open window; he made no attempt to follow them, nor was his master to be seen. 'What's the meaning of this?' said Toby, when they had returned. 'He can't be coming here. I—I—hope not.' 'If he was coming here, he'd have come with the dog,' said Kags, stooping down to examine the animal, who lay panting on the floor. 'Where can he have come from?' exclaimed Toby. 'He's been to the other kens, of course, and finding them filled with strangers, come on here, where he's been many a time and often. But where can he come from first, and how comes he here alone, without the other?' 'He (none of them called the murderer by his old name) 'he can't have made away with himself. What do you think?' said Chitling. Toby shook his head. 'It being now dark, the shutter was closed, and a candle lighted and placed

upon the table. The terrible events of the two days had made a deep impression upon all three, increased by the danger and uncertainty of their own position. They drew their chairs closer together, starting at every sound. They spoke little, and that in whispers, and were as silent and awe-stricken as if the remains of the murdered woman lay in the next room. They had not thus some time, when suddenly was heard a hurried knocking at the door below. 'Young Bates,' said Kags, looking angrily round to check the fear he felt himself. The knocking came again. No, it wasn't he. He never knocked like that. Crackit went to the window, and, shaking all over, drew in his head. There was no need to tell them who it was; his pale face was enough. The dog too was on the alert in an instant, and ran whining to the door. 'We must let him in,' he said, taking up the candle. 'Isn't there any help for it?' asked the other man, in a hoarse voice. 'None. He must come in.' 'Don't leave us in the dark,' said Kags, taking down a candle from the chimney-piece, and lighting it with such a trembling hand that the knocking was twice repeated before he had finished. Crackit went down to the door, and returned followed by a man with the lower part of his face buried in a handkerchief, and another tied over his head under his hat. He drew them slowly off—blanched face, sunken eyes, hollow cheeks, beard of three days' growth, wasted flesh, short thick breath; it was the very ghost of Sikes. He laid his hand upon a chair which stood in the middle of the room, but shuddering as he was about to drop into it, and seeming to glance over his shoulder, dragged it back close to the wall—as close as it would go—ground it against it—and sat down. Not a word had been exchanged. He looked from one to another in silence. If an eye was furtively raised and met his, it was instantly averted. When his hollow voice broke silence, they all three started, they had never heard its tones before. 'How came that dog here?' he asked. 'Alone. Three hours ago.' 'To-night's paper says that Fagin's taken. Is it true, or a lie?' 'Quite true.' They were silent again. 'Damn you all,' said Sikes, passing his hand across his forehead. 'Have you nothing to say to me?' 'Who's that knocking?' Crackit intimated by a motion of his hand as he left the room that there was nothing to fear, and directly came back with Charley Bates behind him. Sikes sat opposite the door, so that the moment the boy entered the room he encountered his figure. 'Toby,' said the boy, falling back as Sikes turned his eye towards him, 'why didn't you tell me this, down stairs?' There had been something so tremendous in the shrinking off of the three, that the wretched man was willing to propitiate even this lad. Accordingly he nodded and made as though he would shake hands with him. 'Let me go into some other room,' said the boy, retreating still further. 'Why, Charley?' said Sikes, stepping forward. 'Don't you—don't you know me?' 'Don't come nearer me,' answered the boy, still retreating and looking with horror in his eyes upon the murderer's face. 'You monster.' The man stopped half-way, and they looked at each other; but Sikes's eyes sank gradually to the ground. 'Witness you three,' cried the boy, shaking his clenched fist, and becoming more and more excited as he spoke. 'Witness you three—I am not afraid of him—if they come here after him, I'll give him up; I will. I tell you out at once; he may kill me for it if he likes or if he dares, but I'm here, I'll give him up. I'd give him up if he was to be boiled alive. Murder. Help. If there's the pluck of a man among you three, you'll help me. Murder. Help. Down with him.' Pouring out these cries, and accompanying them with violent gesticulation, the boy actually threw himself single-handed upon the strong man, and in the intensity of his energy and the suddenness of his surprise brought him heavily to the ground. The contest, however, was too unequal to last long. Sikes had him down and his knee was on his throat, when Crackit pulled him back with a look of alarm and pointed to the window. There were lights gleaming below, voices in loud and earnest conversation, the tramp of hurried footsteps—endless they seemed in number—crossing the nearest wooden bridge. One man on horseback seemed to be among the crowd, for there was the noise of hoofs rattling on the uneven pavement; the gleam of lights increased, the foot-

steps came more thickly and noisily on. Then came a loud knocking at the door, and then a hoarse murmur from such a multitude of angry voices as would have made the boldest quail. 'Help!' shrieked the boy, in a voice that rent the air. 'He's here; he's here. Break down the door.' In the King's name, cried voices without; and the hoarse cry arose again, but louder. 'Break down the door,' screamed the boy. 'I tell you they'll never open it. Run straight to the room where the light is. Break down the door.' Strokes thick and heavy rattled upon the door and lower window-shutters as he ceased to speak, and a loud huzza burst from the crowd;—giving the listener, for the first time, some adequate idea of its immense extent. 'Open the door of some place where I can lock this screeching Hell-babe,' cried Sikes fiercely; running to and fro, and dragging the boy, now, as easily as if he were an empty sack. 'That door. Quick.' He flung him in, bolted it, and turned the key. 'Is the down-stairs door fast?' 'Of all the terrific yells that ever fell on mortal ears, none could exceed the cry of that infuriated throng. Some shouted to those who were nearest to set the house on fire; others roared to the officers to shoot him dead. Some called for ladders, some for alderge-hammers; some ran with torches to and fro, as if to seek them, and still came back and naved again; some spent their breath in impotent curses and execrations; some pressed forward with the ecstasy of madmen, and thus impeded the progress of those below; some among the boldest attempted to climb up by the water-spout and crevices in the wall; and all waved to and fro in the darkness beneath like a field of corn moved by an angry wind, and joined from time to time in one loud furious roar. 'The tide,' cried the murderer, as he staggered back into the room, and shut the faces out, 'the tide was in as I came up. Give me a rope, a long rope. They're all in front. I may drop into the Folly Ditch, and clear off that way. Give me a rope, or I shall do three more murders, and kill myself at last.' The panic-stricken men pointed to where such articles were kept; the murderer, hastily selecting the longest and strongest cord, hurried up to the house-top. All the windows in the rear of the house had been long ago bricked up, except one small trap in the room where the boy was locked, and that was too small even for the passage of his body. But from this aperture he had never ceased to call on those without to guard the back, and thus, when the murderer emerged at last on the house-top by the door in the roof, a loud shout proclaimed the fact to those in front, who immediately began to pour round, pressing upon each other in one unbroken stream.—He planted a board which he had carried up with him for the purpose so firmly against the door, that it must be matter of great difficulty to open it from the inside, and, creeping over the tiles, looked over the low parapet. The water was out, and the ditch abed of mud. The crowd had been hushed during these few moments, watching his motions, and doubtful of his purpose; but the instant they perceived it, and knew it was defeated, they raised a cry of triumphant execration, to which all their previous shouting had been whispers. 'On pressed the people from the front—on, on, in one strong struggling current of angry faces, with here and there a glaring torch to light them up and show them out in all their wrath and passion. The houses on the opposite side of the ditch had been entered by the mob; sashes were thrown up, or torn bodily out; there were tiers and tiers of faces in every window, and cluster upon cluster of people clinging to every house-top. Each little bridge (and there were three in sight) bent beneath the weight of the crowd upon it; and still the current poured on, to find some nook or hole from which to vent their shouts, and only for an instant see the wretch. 'They have him now,' cried a man on the nearest bridge. 'Hurrah!' 'At this moment the word was passed among the crowd that the door was forced at last, and that he who had first called for the ladder had mounted into the room. The stream abruptly turned as this intelligence ran from mouth to mouth, and the people at the windows, seeing those upon the bridges pouring back, quitted their stations, and, running into the street, joined the concourse that now thronged pell-mell to the spot they had left, each man crushing and striving with his neighbour, and all panting with

impatience to get near the door and look upon the criminal as the officers brought him out. The man had shrunk down, thoroughly quelled by the ferocity of the crowd, and the impossibility of escape; but seeing this sudden change with no less rapidity than it occurred, he sprang upon his feet, determined to make one last effort for his life by dropping into the ditch, and, at the risk of being stifled, endeavouring to creep away in the darkness and confusion.

Roused into new strength and energy, and stimulated by the noise within the house, which announced that an entrance had really been effected, he set his foot against the stack of chimneys, fastened one end of the rope tightly and firmly round it, and with the other made a strong running noose by the aid of his hands and teeth almost in a second. He could let himself down by the cord to within a less distance of the ground than his own height, and had his knife ready in his hand to cut it then and drop.

At the very instant that he brought the loop over his head previous to slipping it beneath his arm-pits, and when the old gentleman before-mentioned (who had clung so tight to the railing of the bridge as to resist the force of the crowd, and retain his position) earnestly warned those about him that the man was about to lower himself down—at that very instant, the murderer, looking behind him on the roof, threw his arms above his head, and uttered a yell of terror. 'The eyes again!' he cried in an unearthly screech. Staggering as if struck by lightning, he lost his balance, and tumbled over the parapet; the noose was at his neck; it ran up with his weight tight as a bow-string, and swift as the arrow it speeds. He fell for five-and-thirty feet. There was a sudden jerk, a terrific convulsion of the limbs, and there he hung, with the open knife clenched in his stiffening hand. The old chimney quivered with the shock, but stood it bravely. The murderer swung lifeless against the wall, and the boy, thrusting aside the dangling body which obscured his view, called to the people to come and take him out for God's sake.

List of New Books.—Treatises on Physiology and Pathology, by P. M. Roget, M.D. 2 vols. post 8vo. 12s. cl.—Israel's Wanderings in the Wilderness, by the Rev. G. D. Krummacher, Vol. II. 12mo. 6s. cl.—The Excitement, edited by the Rev. Robert Jamieson, 1839. 18mo. 4s. 6d. bds.—Jack Adams, the Mutineer, by Capt. Chamier, 3 vols. post 8vo. 31s. 6d. bds.—Geraldine, a Sequel to Cole-ridge's 'Christabel,' by M. F. Tupper, post 8vo. 7s. cl.—Gresley's Portrait of an English Churchman, 12mo. 7s. cl.—Paul's Analecta Hebraica, 8vo. 16s. cl.—Macbride's Lectures on the Diatessaron, 8vo. 12s. cl.—Bonnycastle's Introduction to Astronomy, new edit. 12mo. 9s. cl.—Pearls of Great Price, from the Works of Rev. J. Collier, 18mo. 2s. 6d. cl.—Clarke's Day in May, 6s. 4s. cl.—Venn's Complete Duty of Man, with Life of the Author, by the Rev. H. Venn, 12mo. 3s. 6d. cl.—Whewell's Mechanical Euclid, 3rd edit. 12mo. 5s. 6d. cl.—Jesus the Mercy-seat, by I. C. Mears, 12mo. 4s. 6d. cl.—Dewey's Moral Views of Commerce and Politics, 12mo. 6s. bds.—Bonnet's Conveyancing, Vol. II. royal 8vo. 17s. bds.—The Young Naturalist's Book of Birds, 12mo. 2s. 6d. cl.—Peter Parley's Universal History, 6s. 7s. 6d. cl.—Sketches and Essays, by W. Hazlitt, collected by his Son, 6s. 6s. cl.

FRENCH EXPEDITION OF DISCOVERY TO THE SOUTH POLAR SEAS.

AN ample account of the proceedings of the French expedition to the South Polar Seas, from the time of its leaving Rio Janeiro till its arrival at Concepcion, in Chili, written by the commander, M. d'Urville, has appeared in the *Journal des Débats*. From this document we obtain a few particulars respecting the complete failure of the expedition in its chief object, which was to penetrate through the ice to a high southern latitude. M. d'Urville, so far from eclipsing his predecessors in the Antarctic Ocean, appears among them only as a lustreless name, unable to emerge from their shadows. He is far in the rear of them, being unable to find even any access to those seas, in the exploration of which Cook, Bellinghausen, Weddell, and Biscoe have displayed so much skill and intrepidity. The seasons were, no doubt, unfavourable to him; wind and frost conspired to check his progress: we are willing to allow the chop-fallen navigator to plead the chances of the sea, and to throw as much blame as possible on the caprices of the *aura fallacia*, but yet we feel bound to state, and we do so with sincere regret, that M. d'Urville's report is sadly deficient in that simplicity of spirit, that sincere and conscientious gravity, which appears to us to be essential to the character of one fitted to conduct to a successful issue an arduous undertaking.

So far from gaining on our confidence, he only makes us more sensible of his conscious incapacity, when he endeavours to enhance the merit of his own achievements by disparaging those of his precursors.

The *Astrolabe* and *Zélée* left Rio Janeiro on the 14th of November, and in their voyage southwards encountered strong westerly winds, which prevented their near approach to the Patagonian coasts, and even rendered it difficult for them to hold their course westward of the Falkland Islands. When the expedition reached the latitude of Terra del Fuego, the wind shifted to the east, and caused a corresponding change in the plans of M. d'Urville, who thus explains his motives:—

"The wind having passed to the east, I immediately determined, instead of staying some time at Statenland, a place of no importance, to make an excursion into the Straits of Magellan, which promised the most interesting results. It was only from the consideration that the attempt to penetrate the ice must employ two whole months of the southern summer, that I had erased the exploration of the Straits of Magellan from the plan of our expedition, and I was aware that many naturalists of the first class had regretted that erasure. But now, having just read attentively the accounts of the various navigators who had attempted to make their way into the Antarctic regions, I had profoundly studied the best means to be employed for that purpose, and was convinced that every attempt of that kind would be utterly useless before the end of January, since the accounts of all those navigators seem to unite in proving that the thaw is not complete before that time. This important fact once established, I judged that a dash into the Straits of Magellan, still so little known, so neglected for nearly a century, and which had been visited by none of our countrymen, except Bougainville, would be a very honourable prelude to the more difficult labours which awaited us in the ice."

We know not how M. d'Urville could feel himself justified in asserting that the Straits of Magellan are but little known, or have been neglected for nearly a century. We have more than a dozen very ample and authentic descriptions of them. In the year 1785, when the Spanish government seriously thought of renewing their attempt to colonize the Straits, a frigate was sent to survey them, and within the last twelve years they have been still more perfectly surveyed by Captains King and FitzRoy. However, M. d'Urville was bent on making discoveries before the wind, and so he entered the Straits of Magellan. Within it he found positive proofs that its waters are not unknown to the nautical world.

"Several documents," he says, "found in a barrel suspended to a tree on the shore, apprised me that some English and American ships are in the habit of making this passage, chiefly on their return from the Pacific to the Atlantic Ocean." I found notes written by a captain of a whaler, who preferred this passage to that by Cape Horn. I am pleased with the belief that our example may serve as an encouragement to others," &c.

When the expedition, after a three weeks' voyage in the Straits, had reached Cape Froward, the most southern point of the American mainland, it began to encounter adverse winds, and was forced to retrace its course. We cannot help smiling, therefore, at the self-complacency of M. d'Urville, who with the clearest proofs before his eyes, that the passage of the straits is habitually effected by British whalers, and being foiled in the attempt himself, yet expresses his hopes that his example will encourage others.

"On the 3rd of January," continues M. d'Urville, "we sailed close along the eastern shore of the strait, which throughout its whole extent appears to be very imperfectly traced in the chart of Captain King, which is in other respects so valuable for the extent and accuracy of its determinations."

It does not appear to us quite fair to impute as an imperfection to the comprehensive chart here alluded to, that it is not still more comprehensive. The eastern coast of Magellan's Straits was not accurately surveyed by Captain King, and is accordingly marked in his chart as undetermined. He published the fruits of his hydrographical labours without any vain attempts to hide their deficiencies; and what he left unfinished his successor completed. Of this M. d'Urville must have been well aware. Before he

left the Straits he had the satisfaction of conversing with some Patagonians, whom he found to be tall men, but not giants; and then turning southwards, he observes, "I took advantage of the favourable wind to run at a distance of three or four miles from the shore, along the whole eastern coast of Terra del Fuego, of which I did not as yet know of any detailed chart." He ought to have said explicitly that he did not know of such a chart being published, but he certainly was not ignorant that the coast in question had been completely surveyed by Captain FitzRoy.

Pursuing his course southwards, towards New South Shetland, M. d'Urville fell in with the first ice on the 15th of January; and a week later, in lat. 64° S., his progress was arrested by a compact barrier of ice, which compelled him to turn eastward. He thus found the very sea through which Weddell had navigated without hindrance, now completely inaccessible. His efforts to find an opening southwards through it proving fruitless, and the ships running some risk of being frozen in, the attempt was abandoned, after a month's exertion, and M. d'Urville steered for Chili. He had not been able to penetrate beyond the 64th degree, but consoled himself for this disappointment by coasting certain mysterious lands, of which, he says, we have no positive information, and which he, as the first scientific discoverer, has thought himself entitled to name *Terra Louis Philippe*. This is the Trinity land, otherwise called Palmer's land, of our charts.

We should feel inclined, if unprovoked, to pity M. d'Urville's mortifying failure; we could pardon too a good deal of his gasconading; but we confess, that his insinuations of doubt as to the veracity of Weddell's narrative, have lowered him so much in our esteem, that we can hardly place any reliance on his good sense or sincerity. He says that he was sure of finding a passage southwards, either to the east of Sandwich Islands or west of New Shetland, but he resisted the temptation to make any further efforts, being convinced that the proper object of his expedition was rather to determine how far the assertions of Weddell were well founded, and the course marked out by him practicable, then to advance a few degrees towards the pole: "and in this point (he observes) our object was completely attained." No one, we dare say, will envy M. d'Urville his complete success in this respect, or will suppose for a moment that Weddell did not reach the 74th parallel, as certainly as D'Urville stopped short at the 64th. Weddell did not pretend to discover a region of the Southern Ocean, which is always free from ice; nor are we disposed to assume, that if the ice were capable of giving way at all, it must have given way to M. d'Urville. The French ships arrived at the harbour of Conception the 7th of April, with their crews disabled by scurvy to an extent which, considering the short duration of their struggle with the ice, and the general moderation of the weather, shows that M. d'Urville is, on all sides, wanting in good fortune.

SIR DAVID BREWSTER AND PROF. POWELL.

To the Editor of the *Athenæum*.

St. Leonard's, St. Andrew's, Nov. 12, 1838.

I observe, in the last number of the *Athenæum*, that Prof. Powell has read to the Ashmolean Society a paper 'On Refractive Indices,' in which, among other objects, "he had in view the settlement of some points in which questions have been raised; and, in some preliminary remarks, he adverted especially to certain objections raised by Sir D. Brewster, at the Newcastle meeting of the British Association."

The questions and objections to which this quotation alludes, refer to certain unquestionable facts regarding the solar spectrum, which I stated to the Physical Section of the Association; and as science can gain nothing by the discussion of the subject, I regret that the necessity of repeating and substantiating what I then said, should place me in the attitude of controversy with a friend whom I so much respect and esteem.

When Prof. Powell sent me a copy of his paper 'On Refractive Indices,' published by the Ashmolean Society in 1836, I saw that he had committed a mistake in his measure of the index of the line (H) of Fraunhofer; and as his observations were made with the express view of testing the undulatory theory of dispersion, I communicated to him, in a private

letter, the fact, that all Fraunhofer's observations referred solely to the least refrangible of the two similar dark bands in the violet rays of the spectrum; whereas he (Prof. Powell) had avowedly given the index of an imaginary line intermediate between these two dark bands.

Although Prof. Powell did not return any answer to this communication, I had no doubt that he would take the earliest opportunity of correcting his mistake; but I was surprised to find from his paper, 'On some Points connected with the Theory of Light,' sent to the Association at Newcastle, that he not only did not correct his mistake about the line (H), but had committed one equally serious in reference to the line (G): and as these lines were the only ones from which arguments of any weight could be deduced, either for or against the undulatory theory, I found it necessary to explain to the Section the nature of these oversights. I need not here repeat the observations which I then made, and which you have reported with sufficient accuracy in the *Athenæum* of September 1st, p. 622, 625, and shall, therefore, only state, that I brought to the Section next day my own very minute maps of the solar lines, and drew upon the board the groups of lines at (G) and (H), in order to establish the accuracy of my statement.

In Prof. Powell's new paper, which has called forth this reply, he speaks of these two statements of mine as *opinions, neither of which are supported by any arguments*. They are not *opinions*; they are *facts*; and being facts, they cannot be supported by arguments. The following, however, is the evidence upon which they rest.

Prof. Powell and Mr. Kelland had always observed a particular discrepancy between theory and observation in the ray (G); and Prof. Powell endeavours to explain this, by stating that the part marked (G) by Fraunhofer, consists of a multitude of small lines, which, in the more highly dispersive media, are spread over a considerable space. Now, Prof. Powell acknowledges, in his new paper, that he had taken the mean of these lines, (that is the middle point of this considerable space,) as the precise ray in question. But this considerable space clearly embraces two groups of lines, in the middle of the least refrangible of which groups the precise line (G) of Fraunhofer is situated. In proof of this, we refer to Fraunhofer's original map, where he has indicated, by dots, the exact line which he calls (G). The same distinct indication is made in Shumacher's translation, where the original plate seems to have been used; and the precise line (G) is marked with equal distinctness in the copy of the map in the *Edinburgh Encyclopedia*.

With regard to the line (H), I have to adduce the same evidence. In Fraunhofer's original map, the line to which all his measures refer, is the least refrangible of the two bands in the violet rays; and so it is in Shumacher's edition, and also in the copy in the *Edinburgh Encyclopedia*. Hence, all the indices of refraction which Prof. Powell has given for (G) and (H) are too great; and I trust that the numbers which he has now obtained will offer fewer discrepancies with the undulatory theory.

In Prof. Powell's new paper, he has stated that the method which I suggested to the Physical Section, "for obviating the difficulties presented by some substances in observing the spectrum, is inapplicable for the purpose of these observations." This, I presume, is an oversight, which a better acquaintance with the methods which I proposed cannot fail to correct.

I am, Sir, your most obedient servant,

D. BREWSTER.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

The Parisian *feuilletons* are full of *Ruy-Blas*, in which Lemaître's powers of acting—rather than M. Hugo's achievements as a romantic dramatist—nightly fill the *Théâtre de la Renaissance*. The plot seems to us to verge upon the most ridiculous bathos. An offended grandee having vowed vengeance against the Queen of Charles the Second of Spain, and discovered in a friend's *Figaro* a youth who loves his sovereign lady as passionately as *Claude Melnotte* loves *Pauline Deschappelles*, in the 'Lady of Lyons,'—takes the identical means adopted in Sir E. L. Bulwer's play by the baffled suitors, to work out his vengeance—sits out *Ruy-Blas* the laquay as a gentle-

man—gets him made prime minister, &c. &c., and thrusts him upon all manner of perilous adventures—his reward to be only the more cool than consoling *Jet'admire!* of the queen. And this is the modern historical drama!—While gossiping of strange things and sovereigns, we cannot forget that the French push tell us that their queen has subscribed for a hundred copies of an anecdotal Life of our royal lady Victoria, by Watts, which is to be translated forthwith.—Turning back to theatricals, and coming home, we hear that Mr. Barnett's opera is withdrawn from Drury Lane; and that 'The Death of Rizzio' is not to be given at Covent Garden till some needful alterations have been made. The *Post*, in announcing this intelligence, promises us, also, on the part of the latter theatre, sundry novelties: a five-act play by Jerrold,—a tragedy on the tale of Procrustes, by Sheridan Knowles,—and a drama, with *Salvatore Rosa* for hero, by Sir E. L. Bulwer; to say nothing of an opera by Rooke, on a Moorish subject. The next Shakespeare revival (according to the same authority) is to be 'Richard the Second.'

The papers announce the arrival of Sir Francis Chantrey's equestrian statue of Sir Thomas Moore at its Indian destination.

We understand that in consequence of the disturbed state of Mexico, and the difficulty of obtaining any packages from that country, because of the rigour with which the French squadron maintains the blockade of Vera Cruz and Tampico, the Council of the Horticultural Society have decided upon withdrawing their collector, Mr. Hartweg, and sending him to investigate the botany of the state of Guatemala. The mountainous region, which cuts this magnificent country into two parts, and which abounds with the most noble vegetation to an elevation of more than 12,000 feet above the sea, cannot fail to afford Mr. Hartweg a rich harvest of beautiful plants; which will be the more interesting, because the botany of this part of central America is almost unknown. The ready communication which exists between Guatemala and Honduras, will ensure the safe and prompt dispatch to this country of Mr. Hartweg's collections. It is a subject of the deepest regret, that nearly the whole result of this gentleman's exertions in Mexico, at a very large expense to the Horticultural Society, should be rotting at Tampico, where numerous chests filled with seeds, roots,—which once were living,—plants, and an extensive herbarium, all from the northern and little known Mexican provinces, are waiting for a passage to England.

SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY

ROYAL SOCIETY.

The meetings of the session commenced on Thursday, Davies Gilbert, V.P. Esq. in the chair.

The reading of the minutes, which comprised a summary of the contents of the fourteen papers which had been presented, and in part read, at the last meeting of the Society in June, occupied the greater portion of the time of the meeting.

The following gentlemen were elected Auditors: viz. T. Galloway, Esq.; T. Graham, Esq.; Sir J. F. W. Herschel; J. W. Lubbock, Esq., and the Rev. A. Sedgwick.

A paper was then read, entitled, 'Discovery of the Source of the Oxus,' by Lieut. Wood, of the Indian Navy, communicated by Dr. James Burnes.

SOCIETY OF ANTIQUARIES.

Nov. 15.—Mr. Hamilton, V.P., in the chair.—Mr. Crofton Croker exhibited an original portrait of Montezuma, Emperor of Mexico, said to have been painted by a Spaniard at the time of the conquest.

Mr. Davies Gilbert exhibited an impression of an ancient seal of St. Peter's Church, Exeter.

Sir H. Ellis read a very interesting paper, by M. Patrice Dillon, (a gentleman employed in the French Record Commission), in illustration of that disputed point of English history,—the nature and period of the death of Richard II. M. Dillon has discovered amongst the MSS. of the Royal Library at Paris, two documents in the handwriting of Jean Ciron, the author of the 'Metrical History of the Deposition of Richard II.,' in the Harleian collection of MSS., Brit. Mus. The writer was attached to the household of Charles VI. of France, and sent by that monarch to Scotland, in order to ascertain the truth

of the story of Richard's escape from Pomfret; and M. Dillon argues that his silence respecting the person said to have been Richard, coupled with the fact of Richard's Queen, Isabella, re-marrying with the Duke of Orleans immediately after the return of Citron, may be considered as conclusive of the true king's death, according to the popular belief, at Pomfret Castle.

GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY.

No. 12.—W. R. Hamilton, Esq., President in the chair.

This being the first meeting for the season, numerous donations to the library were announced, among others, the Transactions of the Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg, and of the Society of Northern Antiquaries at Copenhagen, and all the published sheets of the great Topographic Map of France, in 250 sheets.

Prof. C. C. Rafn, of Copenhagen, was elected a Foreign Corresponding Member.

Extracts from the following papers were read:—

1. From Mr. Ainsworth, at Constantinople, dated the 17th of September, stating that the Kurdistan expedition had reached that city on their road to Kaiseriya and Mösul. During their journey across Europe they had been enabled to obtain observations on the magnetic intensity of the earth at Paris, Châlons, Geneva, Isella, in the pass of the Simplon, where the dip instrument was rudely handled by the Custom House officers, on the Sardinian frontiers, Milan, Verona, Venice, Laybach, Vienna, Pest, Galatz, and Constantinople; the needles with which these observations were made having been sent home and vibrated here, the observations have been reduced by Major Sabine, and compared with the corresponding observations of Baron Humboldt in 1805, M. Keilhan in 1826, and M. Quetelet in 1830, with which they present a remarkable coincidence of result. On the 18th of September Mr. Ainsworth, accompanied by Mr. Raasm and Mr. Russell, was to leave Constantinople for Kaiseriya, by way of Imit [Nicomedia] and Ereklî; thence to the banks of the Kizil Irmak [Halys], with the hope of being able to trace the course of that river from its outlet in the Black Sea to its sources near Kaiseriya and Sivas.

2. 'An Outline of the recent Expedition to the North-west Coast of Australia; under Lieutenants Grey and Lushington.'

A former report of this expedition [*Athenæum*, No. 533] noticed its arrival at the Cape. Here, having freighted the *Lynher*, a schooner of 160 tons, taken on board fifty sheep and goats, and made all the requisite arrangements for the thorough equipment of their party, Messrs. Grey and Lushington sailed on the 20th of October, and on the 3rd of December reached Hanover Bay, at the outlet of Prince Regent's River, in lat. 15° 20' S., long. 124° 40' E. Having landed, and pitched their tents in a beautiful valley now for the first time trodden by European feet, and having formally taken possession of this part of the country in the name of Her Majesty, the schooner, under charge of Mr. Lushington, was dispatched to Coepang, in the island of Timor, distant about 300 miles to the north, to embark ponies, of which six and twenty were obtained, at the rate of about 2l. each, chiefly in exchange for muskets and powder. During the vessel's absence Mr. Grey and his party examined the country in the immediate vicinity of their camp—and explored a small stream which watered the valley, for about five miles to the southward. The country generally, as viewed from the sea, promises well; but on landing, the first appearance is monotonous and sterile; being composed of rocky hills of sandstone about 300 feet in height, covered with brushwood and prickly grass; but between these hills are beautiful valleys, the soil of which is fertile, and where fresh water may always be found. Although at this time, from prudential motives, no communication was held with the natives, still their huts were visited, and found to consist of a conical frame-work of wood, about four feet high and ten feet in diameter at the base, and were, upon the whole, well and neatly made. The natives were evidently in possession of sharp-cutting instruments, and many large trees were seen with notches or steps cut in them, by means of which they ascend for the

purpose of stripping off the bark, which furnishes them with all the clothes they need in this fine climate—the hatchets may probably be of stone. The principal food of the natives would seem to be here, as in other parts of this island, kangaroo and shell-fish, as the remains of them were found near their fires, and both of these are abundant. On the return of Lieut. Lushington from Timor with the ponies and other necessities, the expedition on the 1st of February started for the interior. They proceeded first about fifteen miles in a nearly due south direction, until they had reached the parallel of 15° 29' S. lat. The whole of the country lying between this point and Hanover Bay was composed of ridges of sandstone, of no great elevation, but intersected by deep ravines; their progress was consequently slow and toilsome, for they had to construct paths for the horses to travel upon before they were able to move from one encampment to the next spot where they intended to halt. In this first part of the journey, they also lost many horses. After passing the parallel of 15° 29' S. they entered upon a very rich tract of country, that even surpassed in fertility that small portion of the Brazil which they had had an opportunity of seeing. A large expanse of water having been seen a little to the west of south, they were induced to pursue that direction, and still found the country to be of the same rich and luxuriant character. Upon attaining the parallel of 15° 43' S. lat., and 124° 44' E. long., they found themselves upon the banks of a considerable river, which Lieut. Grey named Glenelg River, in testimony of the obligations which the expedition were under to the Secretary of State for the Colonies. The river was at this point salt; and as, from its size and rapid current, they could not cross it, they travelled up its banks in a north-easterly direction—their progress being much impeded by the number of tributary streams which poured into it. The luxuriance of the vegetation also hindered their progress; so that, although their horses again began to thrive from the goodness of the grass, their advance was still slow and difficult. The river first became perfectly fresh at a point situated in 15° 41' S. lat., and 124° 53' E. long. Beyond this point it would not be navigable for large vessels; for a series of rapids occur here, so that a portage must necessarily be established. From hence they still continued their course to the eastward, in the direction of the river, but at some distance from it, until they arrived at a point situated in 15° 41' 50" S. lat., and 124° 59' E. long. The river was here quite fresh, running at the rate of rather more than 5 knots an hour. Its banks were composed of fine white sand; and even close to the bank it was 2½ fathoms in depth. On the other side of the river the country hereabouts appeared to be low and marshy; and a remarkable circumstance was observed, namely, that driftwood, weeds, &c. were lodged in the forked branches of trees at least fifteen feet above their heads when they stood upon the banks of the river: extensive inundations must therefore sometimes take place, and at these periods there is little doubt that the whole of the low country to the south is flooded. A very large tributary stream here joined the river, which they could not cross, as it ran through a low and marshy country; and they were again obliged to turn off to the northward. After following its course for about eight miles through a marshy and almost impassable country, they succeeded in crossing it, but still experienced great difficulty in travelling upon the other side of it; for owing to the heavy rains, which had lately fallen, the marshes were almost impassable. Lieut. Grey here remarks that these heavy rains, which were of several days' continuance, had but very little effect upon the main river, and would by no means account for the signs of inundation which they there saw. This is a remarkable fact, and, viewed in connexion with some others, bears materially upon the physical geography of the country. In 15° 49' S. lat., and 125° 6' E. long., they crossed another very considerable stream, which ran in the direction of Glenelg river. This was the largest tributary stream seen flowing down to it. The next point at which they saw the river was in 15° 56' S. lat., and in 125° 8' E. long.; it was here 250 yards wide, but again formed a series of rapids; and they found a ford just above these, the average depth of which was not more than three feet. The soil on its banks was still good; the bed of the river

at this point trended away to the eastward. Only twelve ponies now surviving out of the twenty-six which had arrived from Timor, it was deemed prudent no longer to follow the course of this river; but Lieut. Grey resolved to push on with as much dispatch as possible in the direction of the great opening behind Dampier's Land; for although it was evident that from want of provisions they would soon be compelled to return to Hanover Bay, he conceived it absolutely necessary that the part of the country above alluded to should be examined. After crossing the river, the country again changed its character, the soil becoming sandy, and they began the ascent of a chain of hills running from S.E. to N.W. They continued this gradual ascent for three days till they reached the summit, when to the S.E., S., and S.W. they could see nothing but inaccessible precipices. Several days were occupied in trying to find a pass by which the horses might proceed over the mountains, but none such could be found; they, therefore, resolved to proceed with a small party to examine the country to the south of their present position. At this time Mr. Grey's wound in the hip, which was caused by the spear of a native at the outset of his journey, became so painful, that the surgeon positively forbade his proceeding a step farther. A detached party, therefore, started under the command of Mr. Lushington, and attained a point situated in about 16° 30' S. lat. and 125° 16' E. long.; the result of their reconnaissance was, that in all probability, no large river could exist immediately to the south. As any further attempt to proceed in that direction appeared then to be useless, and as the party were compelled to return to Hanover Bay from want of provisions, they resolved to make for this point by a route different to that which they had already traversed, and thus fully to complete the exploration of this portion of the country. On arriving at Hanover Bay, on the 15th of March, they had the unexpected pleasure of meeting with Captain Wickham, R.N., in command of H.M.S. *Beagle*, who had, after a careful examination of the coast, arrived at the same conclusion, viz., that no large river could exist between the one that he had discovered, and *Fitz Roy River*, which he had discovered at the south part of the great opening behind Dampier's Land. These rivers, although of considerable magnitude, are still utterly insufficient to account for the drainage of this vast continent, and this interesting question, instead of being at all placed in a clearer point of view by the united exertions of these two expeditions, is, if possible, at this moment involved in deeper obscurity and mystery than ever. In the course of the journey, Messrs. Grey and Lushington found a great many curious native paintings in caves, executed in a surprising way for a savage race. In these caves were some drawings of the human hand, which showed great knowledge of the art of producing effect: they selected a rock in the most gloomy part of the cave; the hand must have been placed upon this rock and some white powder dashed against it. When the hand was removed, a sort of stamp was left upon the rock; the hand was then painted black and the rock about it quite white, so that on entering that part of the cave, it appeared as if a human hand and arm were projecting through a crevice admitting light. Many of the figures in these drawings were clothed, though the natives themselves were in a perfect state of nature. These and other circumstances would countenance the belief that they are a race of Asiatic origin: indeed, Lieut. Grey expresses his conviction that the mass of evidence he has collected on this point will enable him to prove it. These caves and paintings were all far inland, and nothing of the kind was near the coast. Copies were also obtained of some of the drawings by the natives living on the coast, but these are said to be the productions of a race quite distinct. Before quitting Hanover Bay the party had the gratification of seeing the bread-fruit and cocoa-nut trees which they had brought from Timor, and planted in the valley, as well as numerous seeds from the Brazils and the Cape of Good Hope, in a most flourishing state. They had also introduced and left there several animals, as ponies, goats, &c., and in short done everything in their power to make their visit a blessing to the natives and to the country.

3. Extract from a letter from Capt. Wickham to Capt. Beaufort:—

"H.M.S. Beagle, Port George IV., April 17th, 1838.

"Quitting Swan River on the 4th of January, 1838, we proceeded direct to the north-west coast of Australia. We reached the shoal soundings off Cape Villaret on the evening of the 15th, without being able to make out the land before dark; and on the following morning commenced the examination of Roebuck Bay. The shores of the bay were carefully traced without our being able to discover any opening whatever, thereby setting at rest the question respecting Dampier Land being an island. From Roebuck Bay we proceeded to the northward, where the coast was found to differ a little from that laid down in the charts; and, thinking there might be some opening unobserved by Capt. King, owing to his distance off shore, we narrowly examined every part of the coast as far as Point Swan, never being more than from two to three miles off shore, and at times considerably within that distance, anchoring every night, which we were fortunately enabled to do, owing to the favourable state of the weather. The bay round Sandy Point, which has been named Beagle Bay, in lat. 16° 50', affords the best anchorage on the coast, but it is exposed to westerly winds. The coast from Roebuck Bay to Point Swan having been closely examined, without the slightest appearance of even a stream of fresh water running into the sea from any part of it, and the weather being evidently on the eve of a change, and the westerly monsoon setting in upon the coast, the ship was moored off the first sandy beach round Point Swan, which place appeared to offer the best anchorage we were likely to find. I, therefore, resolved to wait a few days for the purpose of rating the chronometers, and making the other necessary observations, and, if possible, to complete our stock of water: wood we saw was plentiful everywhere. We remained at this anchorage until February 9th. From Point Swan we proceeded towards Sunday Strait, having previously ascertained that there was no passage fit for a vessel of any description between that and Point Swan, the whole space being thickly strewn with rocky islets and reefs, nearly all dry at low water, and causing heavy races and overfalls as they became covered at half-tide. Owing to the unsettled state of the weather, we were obliged to anchor at three different times under the large island on the west side of the strait, in exposed anchorages; but this trifling delay enabled us to complete Capt. King's plan of the place. From these islands, which we have named Roe's Islands, we proceeded to Cygnet Bay, and continued a close examination of the coast to the southward. Many good anchorages were found, but no appearance of streams of fresh water. Having reached as far as Foul Point, I sent Lieut. Stokes with two boats to trace the shore farther to the southward, and to gain some information as to the probable extent of the opening. He returned on the eighth day, having succeeded in discovering that the southern part of King's Sound terminated in the mouth of a river, or of an extensive lake, as at low tide (the fall being thirty-six feet) the water was quite fresh alongside the boat, and running in small streams from the southward, between the extensive flats that were left dry by the tide, and reached from shore to shore, a distance of five or six miles, without leaving a passage for a boat. In consequence of this information the ship was moved to the south-east, in which direction Capt. King had seen land raised by refraction, but which was found to be only eighteen miles distant, and very low. From this point the examination of the river was continued by Lieut. Stokes and myself. We found it to be of trifling extent; but, from the quantities of drift-wood and weeds suspended to the trees from twelve to fifteen feet over our heads, it must be subject to immense inundations at certain seasons of the year; and from the lowness of the land on each bank, as far as we could see, the whole country must then be under water for an extent of many miles. We proceeded about fifteen miles in a straight line, S. by E., at which place our progress was impeded by the numbers of drift-trees that completely blocked the passage. At this point the river was rapid, and ran in three or four small streams, occasioned by some small islets, and the number of fallen trees. The banks were nowhere above twelve feet high, and the land on each side perfectly level, as far as could be seen from the top of the highest tree. Quantities of rich grass

covered both banks; and the country appeared in places to be thickly wooded. The entrance to this river, which has been named *FitzRoy River*, in compliment to Capt. R. FitzRoy, R.N., is in lat. 17° 34' S., and long. 123° 38' E. (nearly). During the examination of the river, a boat was employed in tracing the shore to the eastward, which appeared to be a deep opening, as no land was visible from the mast-head; and I thought it not improbable that a passage might be found communicating with Collier Bay; but, like all the other openings we had examined, it terminated in low flat land, thickly studded with mangroves, amongst which the tide flows for a considerable distance; and at low water the whole shore is fronted by extensive flats of soft mud. From this point the shore of the main land has been carefully traced as far as Port George IV., chiefly by Lieut. Stokes, in the boats, who is perfectly satisfied that there is no stream of any consequence running into the sea from any part of it. On the passage from King's Sound to Port George IV. we discovered a dry sand-bank, ten or twelve feet above water, and which is not laid down in Capt. King's chart. It lies in lat. 15° 19' 20" S., and long. 123° 35' E., being about twenty-six miles N.E. by E. of Adele Island. I take this opportunity also of making known the discovery of two dangers seen by Mr. Browne in the *Lynher*. One is situated in lat. 15° 26' 30" S., and long. 121° 55' E., and is a reef about two feet under water; the other is in lat. 14° 4' S., and long. 123° 30' E., and is a low island about one mile in extent. We have had frequent communications with the natives at different places, and all have been of a most friendly nature; indeed, they have invariably sought our acquaintance, by coming to the beach and beckoning to us to land; and, whenever our parties have landed, although at times in great numbers, for the purpose of fishing, wooding, and watering, they have never drawn back, but have put themselves (unarmed) entirely into our power, and have never once expressed a wish that our arms should be laid down. Almost all that we have seen have had the two front teeth of the upper jaw extracted, and all perfectly naked with the exception of a small grass apron. This appears to be a very extraordinary part of the world; the whole coast on the western side of King's Sound, also the entire coast between Roebuck Bay and Point Swan, being entirely of sandstone, whereas, the islands and all the high land on the eastern side are entirely of quartz, and of so rugged an outline, that it is a most difficult matter to proceed in any direction. The islands are almost void of vegetation, and the whole seem to be thrown up into such fantastical shapes, as to lead one to suppose this part of the world to be in the last stage of utter ruin and confusion. From Valentine Island (where the cliffs end) the land is very low, and continues so to the banks of FitzRoy river. I am afraid that this river is never likely to become of any service, owing to its distance from the sea, and the risk in approaching it, occasioned by the strong tides amongst the islands of Buccaneer's Archipelago; but I am of opinion that, if a party is ever to reach the interior of Australia, it must be by its banks; the wood is nowhere so thick as to offer any impediment to such an undertaking, and there would be a certain supply of good grass. It appears to me that the inundations that evidently take place at times are in no way connected with the rainy season on the coast, as at our visit, which was immediately after the rains, there were no recent marks of the country having been flooded; these overflows might prove a serious evil, as in many places there would be no escape but in the trees; the bed of the river is entirely of sand and gravel, therefore, no sickness would be likely to arise from keeping on its banks. As we have been fortunate enough to meet Lieut. Grey and his party, who returned from his expedition three days after our arrival here, and who has offered to take charge of any letters we may wish to forward, I take the opportunity of sending this short account of our proceedings, and merely a sketch of our work in continuation of Capt. King's charts, as there has not been time to lay down the work that all have been busy in collecting, and which will require at least two quiet months to put together."

Among the visitors present at the meeting, were Dr. Lepsius, of Berlin, well known by his work on Indian Paleography; and a native of Dongola, who

is about to start in the course of three weeks to explore the sources of the Bahr el Abiad, or White Nile.

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

SAT.	Asiatic Society	Two, P.M.
	Royal Academy (<i>Anatom. Lect.</i>)	
MON.	Statistical Society	Eight.
	Architectural Society	Eight.
TUES.	Linnean Society	Eight.
	Geological Society	p. Eight.
WED.	Society of Arts	p. Seven.
	Royal Society	p. Eight.
THUR.	Numismatic Society	Seven.
	Society of Antiquaries	Eight.
	Royal Society of Literature	Four.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA.

DRURY LANE.

This Evening, a New Ballet, in Two Acts, called *THE SPIRIT OF AIR*; with *THE ILLUSTRIOUS STRANGER*; and *CHARLEMAGNE*.
On Monday, *DER FREISCHUTZ*, in which Mr. Brahm will appear; and *CHARLEMAGNE*.

COVENT GARDEN.

This Evening, *THE TEMPEST*; and *THE ROYAL OAK*.
On Monday, *MACBETH*; with a New Farce, in One Act, called *CHAOS IS COME AGAIN*; or, *THE RACE BALL*; with *THE OMNIBUS*.
Tuesday, *THE TEMPEST*.
Wednesday, *THE LADY OF LYONS*.
Thursday, *THE TEMPEST*.

SACRED HARMONIC SOCIETY.—The performance of 'Samson' at Exeter Hall, before an attentive and crowded audience, was, in every respect, interesting. Since we last attended one of its public exhibitions, the Society has made progress,—mellowed, and become more certain in its chorus-singing. There must always remain, in its Oratorios, one imperfection, arising from the shape of Exeter Hall, the extreme width of which precludes the effective concentration of the voices and the orchestra. The band is still too feeble, especially in its stringed instruments,—while the solo singers on Wednesday, with the exception of Miss Birch and Mr. Phillips, were not such as, by their vocal powers or expressiveness of style, to redeem many of the songs from tameness and a certain obsolete air. With the exception of the choruses 'O first created beam,' 'Fixed in his everlasting seat,' the chorus of Philistines, 'Hear us, O God,' (a splendid piece of dramatic writing,) and the final 'Let their celestial concerts,'—'Samson' contains comparatively few of those imperishable choral effects which place Handel above all his successors. There is an unusual quantity, moreover, of dragging recitative in dialogue—the most dramatic portions of Milton's 'Samson Agonistes' not having been selected by Dr. Morell, who arranged the book for the composer. Further, as the part of the principal *soprano* belongs to *Dalia*, Handel was unable to throw any very strong feeling into his songs for that voice,—under which conditions, an oratorio always runs a chance of losing some of its interest. But we are glad to have listened to the work entire, for nothing short of such an opportunity of contrasting the giant champion of Israel with the madder groups of his tormentors, could have enabled us to appreciate the force—the intensity of expression,—lavished by Handel on his principal figure. *Samson's* very first air, 'Torments, alas!' bespeaks the depth of his sorrow, and the 'Total eclipse,' though always the sublimest of single songs, receives a yet fuller significance and melancholy from its being heard as a part of a well-studied whole. Then, the energetic 'Why does the God of Israel sleep?' is a noble bravura—in its instrumentation, far less mechanical than other songs of the class by Handel;—while *Samson's* two duets, 'Traitor to Love' (with *Dalia*), and 'Go, baffled coward, go,' (with *Harapha*) have a dramatic energy, which completes the part, places it among the most varied and the finest ones which a tenor singer can attempt. It is needless to point out how Mr. Bennett could not do full justice to music so changeable in its passion. In beautiful contrast to all these tenor songs, stand those allotted to *Micha*, to which Miss Wyndham failed to give due expression. 'Then long eternity,' is one of its composer's serenest airs—and 'Return, O God of Hosts,'—how beautifully supported in its *da capo*, by the chorus!—only stands second among *contralto* songs, to the matchless 'He was despised.' The Philistine bravura, 'Honour and arms,' is a greater favourite with Mr. Phillips (who sung it well on Wednesday,) than with ourselves—in the scale of composition standing

ADVERTISEMENTS

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.

TO SCHOOLMASTERS AND USHERS.
 LORD BACCHAM having proposed, that the Interest of a Sum of Money, which has been given to the College by a munificent but unknown Benefactor, to be applied under his Lordship's direction, shall be employed in procuring admission for Schoolmasters and Ushers, to certain of the Colleges, at a reduced Fee, MASTERS OF UNENDOWED SCHOOLS and USHERS, who may be desirous of attending EVENING LECTURES, by the Professors of Greek, Latin, Mathematics, and Natural Philosophy, on payment of a Fee of 11. for one Class, or 11. 10s. for the four Classes, are requested to send their Names and Addresses to the Council.
 HENRY MALDEN, Dean of the Faculty of Arts.
 CHAS. C. ATKINSON, Secretary to the Council.
 7th Nov. 1838.

SCHOOL PRIZES AND PRESENTS FOR YOUTH.

E. PALMER begs to direct the attention of Schoolmasters, Parents, and Friends of Youth, to the great Variety of Articles, particularly adapted for Presents, contained in his NEW CATALOGUE OF CHEMICAL and PHILOSOPHICAL APPARATUS, just published, priced with upwards of 100 Engravings, at 10s. Newgate-street, London.

TO BOOK SOCIETIES, FAMILIES, AND LITERARY CIRCLES.

The *Athenæum* for Saturday, October 27, contains, on the last page, full particulars of BULL'S NEW AND ADVANTAGEOUS SYSTEM of supplying all Words and Names, in all Languages, regularly for Personal in any quantity, throughout England, Scotland, and Ireland. The same Particulars, with a List annexed of all the Valuable New Publications, may now also be had (gratis), or sent by post as a single letter, on application to Mr. BULL, Librarian, 19, Holles-street, four doors from Cavendish-square.

TO COLLECTORS AND CURATORS OF MUSEUMS.

TO BE SOLD, CONSISTING UNDER VALUE, AN EXTENSIVE AND VALUABLE COLLECTION OF MINERAL and GEOLOGICAL SPECIMENS, amounting to nearly 3000, the Property of a Fellow of the Geological Society, who is about to leave Europe. Particulars and price may be had on application (gratis) to the Rev. W. B. CLARKE, Stanley Green, near Poole, Dorset. The Cabinets will be included, if taken as a lot;—and the variety and illustrative character of the different series recommend them as highly useful for a Philosophical Institution.

Sales by Auction.

ARMOUR AND ARMS FROM SPAIN.
 By Messrs. CHRISTIE & MANSON, at their Great Room, King-street, St. James's-square, early in DECEMBER.

A VERY Valuable Assemblage of ANCIENT

ARMOUR, recently received from Spain.
 Comprising a magnificent Suit of richly-embossed Horse Armour of Philip the Second, with Chain Harness inlaid with gold—Four complete Suits of Steel, richly engraved (one of them the Duke d'Angoulême)—A fine Suit of Black Moorish Armour—Suits of Chain Armour—A rare Suit of the last King of Old Castile—A large Collection of Swords, particularly two of Philip the Third and the Duke of Lancaster—Swords, many of them with richly-chased Hilt—Daggers, particularly one of Peter the Cruel—Oriental and Spanish Armour and Pistols, Shields, &c.—Stirrups, Head-pieces, Crossbows, Helmets, Caps, and Gauntlets, many of them richly embossed and inlaid with gold—A few Specimens of Ancient Roman Arms, &c.—Also some Marble Tables, Bronzes, Jewels, Porcelain, French Tapestry, and a few Cabinet Pictures by Italian and Spanish Masters.
 May be viewed two days preceding, and Catalogues had.

THE COLLECTION OF ITALIAN PICTURES OF THE REV. JOHN SANDFORD.

Messrs. CHRISTIE & MANSON respectfully inform the Nobility and Connoisseurs, that in the Month of MARCH they will SELL BY AUCTION, at their Great Room, King-street, St. James's-square,

THE valuable Collection of ITALIAN PICTURES made during a long residence in Italy, under peculiar advantages by that well-known Amateur, The Rev. JOHN SANDFORD.

Comprising fine Works of the great Masters of the Florentine, Roman, Bolognese, Venetian, and Neapolitan Schools, which have formerly adorned the celebrated Galleries of Medici, Marsigliani, Ricci, Guidi, Colonna, Lorenzi, Batachi, Nero, Rosso, Gaddi, Certosa, Montecatini, Brunacci, Niccolini, &c.—Also some Works in the Flemish and Dutch Schools.

Further notice will be given.

THE COLLECTION OF PICTURES AND WORKS FROM THE PONIAŃOWSKI PALACE.

Messrs. CHRISTIE & MANSON respectfully inform the Nobility and Public, that they will SELL BY AUCTION, early in MARCH, at their Great Room, King-street, St. James's-square,

THE Entire Collection of PICTURES, MARBLES, BRONZES, and WORKS OF ART and VIRTU, OF THE PRINCE CHARLES PONIAŃOWSKI, received from the Poniatowski Palace at Florence.

This important and well-known Collection comprises, among the Pictures, the Works of the great Italian Masters of the different Schools, together with several by Flemish, Dutch, and French Artists—Antique and Cinquecento Sculptures, in Marble, Fine Bronzes, Terra Cotta, Etruscan Vases, Rapière Ware, &c.; and some Books, Prints, and Drawings by Old Masters.

Further notice will be given.

THE SUPERB COLLECTION OF ANTIQUE GEMS OF THE PRINCE PONIAŃOWSKI.

Messrs. CHRISTIE & MANSON have the honour to inform the Nobility and Connoisseurs, that they will SELL BY AUCTION, early in the Spring,

THE very Celebrated and Magnificent Collection of ANTIQUE GEMS OF THE PRINCE PONIAŃOWSKI.

This extensive Collection, so celebrated throughout Europe, was commenced by Stanislaus, King of Poland, in the last century, and completed, at different subsequent periods, by the noble family of Poniatowski. It presents numerous exquisite Works of the great Greek and Roman Artists, whose names are recorded by Pliny as held in such high estimation in their age, particularly Pyrgoteles, Dioscorides, Chrysothoros, Gnaeus, Solon, Apollonides, and Polioleutes; many of them are Medallions in intaglio of unusual size, and of the most extraordinary quality and beauty; and numerous smaller Works in intaglio, mounted as rings.

Further notice will be given.

as far beneath 'How willing my paternal love!' (which Mr. Atkins did not sing well) as Pagan boastfulness is lower than Christian resignation. We should exhaust the public's patience long ere we came to an end of our own notes on this Oratorio—but we must express our delight in 'The Dead March,' which was new to us, and perhaps for that reason, appeared more beautiful, though less stately than the 'Dead March' in 'Saul'!

MISCELLANEA

Annelida.—We some time ago announced the discovery of M. Milne Edwards, concerning the blood of *Annelida*, as tending to modify the classification of these animals. This naturalist has been employed on the coast of Bretagne, in following up his researches, thereby confirming his previous observations, and making others of equal value. It appears, according to him, that *Annelida*, which have been hitherto designated as animals with red blood, so far from exhibiting this character constantly, frequently have it colourless, yellowish, and even of an intense green; from which he concludes, that in this class the colour of the blood is of too little physiological importance to form a zoological character. The circumstance of these variations in the physical properties of the blood of inferior animals, make new experiments in its chemical composition highly desirable; for we are naturally led by them to ask, whether the red colour depends on a colouring matter, derived from iron, like the hematosine of the blood of mammalia, or if it arise from one other cause. The circulating apparatus of these animals has also occupied the attention of M. Edwards, and the first thing which struck him, was its variety; a variety which is unknown in the higher classes, and which is to be met with in the genera belonging to the family; sometimes they have true hearts, sometimes contracted bulks, at others a capillary net-work; and the functions of the same vessels vary so much, that it becomes difficult to apply the name of veins or arteries. There is however one certainty, which is, that there are always two systems of sanguinary canals; the one dorsal, the other ventral, and the principal modifications of both depend on their formation, either into two similar and symmetrical longitudinal vessels, or to a partial or entire consolidation into one median trunk. In the most perfect of the annelids the blood circulates constantly and continuously, and according to M. Milne Edwards, in the dorsal system from behind to before, and in the ventral from before to behind. In the less perfect, the blood appears to oscillate rather than circulate.

English Fossils.—Dr. Procter has presented a numerous collection of fossils to the French Academy of Sciences, proceeding from the transition chalk of Dudley and Wenlock; among which are some beautiful specimens of Trilobites and Orthocerites. These are deposited in the Museum at the Jardin du Roi.

Nettle.—The nettle is generally visited by exterminating warfare among agriculturists: nevertheless, it has its uses, and the Dutch have contrived to make it serviceable, and even advantageous. The young leaves are good eating, the stem is woven into coarse stuffs, and the jockeys mix the seeds with the food of horses, in order to give them a sleek coat; and the roots, when washed, and mixed with alum or common salt, give a yellow dye. It is a wholesome food for hares, cattle, and young; it will grow in the most arid soil, demands no cultivation, for it stands all weathers, and sows itself. It may be cut two or three times in the summer, and is one of the earliest of plants: when cut for hay, it must not be too old, for then the cattle refuse to eat the dried stalks.

White Bear.—On the 8th of April, about midnight, a great noise was heard in the Canal of Haut Pont at Saint-Omer, and on running to the spot, some of the inhabitants saw a white mass alternately swimming and plunging, which was at first thought to be a cow, but which was soon found to be another animal. No one would attempt to extricate it, but a ball was lodged in its forehead, and after a struggle it remained lifeless. A boat was then despatched, and the animal was dragged on the quay, where, to the great astonishment of all present, it proved to be a large white Arctic bear. It was presented to the Museum of the above place.

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